

# The Nostratic Macrofamily and Linguistic Palaeontology

Aharon Dolgopolsky

with an introduction by  
Colin Renfrew



THE McDONALD INSTITUTE FOR ARCHAEOLOGICAL RESEARCH

Papers in the Prehistory of Languages

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# *Introduction*

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by Colin Renfrew



# Introduction: the Nostratic Hypothesis, Linguistic Macrofamilies and Prehistoric Studies

**Colin Renfrew**

Director of the McDonald Institute for Archaeological Research  
University of Cambridge

## Foreword

It is with great pleasure that I take the opportunity of introducing Aharon Dolgopolsky's *The Nostratic Macrofamily and Linguistic Palaeontology*, published by the McDonald Institute for Archaeological Research as a part of its current Research Project on 'The Prehistory of Languages'. The project is supported with a generous grant from the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation. The Foundation has as its aim the support of research at the uncertain frontiers of knowledge, where the limits to our understanding are not yet clearly defined, and such appears the position in this field, where historical linguistics, prehistoric archaeology and molecular biology overlap in an area of uncertain methodologies.

Such, at any rate to the outside observer, well characterizes the current position in historical linguistics with regard to what may be called 'macrofamilies', that is to say wide linguistic groupings which bring together a number of established linguistic families. The validity of such an enterprise has been questioned by a number of linguists, and the status of the position with regard to macrofamilies (or 'superfamilies') is far from clear to an outsider. At the same time the significance to the understanding of human history and prehistory, if the validity of such macrofamilies were to be accepted, is enormous. The implications for the early history of human populations, and of population movements, would be very considerable. For this reason the topic is attracting increasing attention among archaeologists and among molecular geneticists concerned precisely with the reconstruction of early population histories, to which their own discipline is now increasingly in a position to make notable contributions.

The Nostratic macrofamily has been documented for some time by a substantial body of work, but much of this is published in Russian and is little known in the west. For that reason this short monograph by Aharon Dolgopolsky may be seen as of particular importance. Its subject matter is of the greatest interest to the prehistoric archaeologist of Europe and Western Asia and lands beyond, just

as it must be to the historical linguist concerned with the languages of these areas. But this work goes further: it presents for the first time a full and rich illustration, with a large vocabulary, of the central tenet of the Nostratic hypothesis, namely that the constituent families of the Nostratic macrofamily are indeed related, and that this relationship can be documented using the traditional and well tried 'comparative method' of historical linguistics. This was first developed in its full complexity and rigour in the field of Indo-European studies (Brugmann 1897–1916) and has subsequently been applied to a wide range of language families. The present short monograph should therefore offer to historical linguists the opportunity of evaluating the linguistic reconstructions presented here, and thus the hypothetical relationships which it is claimed that they demonstrate.

The discipline of historical linguistics has had some difficulty, or so it would seem, in evaluating the claims of those who have proposed the existence of various macrofamilies. It is therefore the intention of the 'Prehistory of Languages' Project of the McDonald Institute to seek to generate informed discussion of the present short monograph by circulating it widely, and by inviting qualified linguists and others to submit comments which, it is hoped, will form the basis for a symposium or conference, to be held probably in 1998, to evaluate the current standing of the Nostratic hypothesis.

It is furthermore the hope and intention of the McDonald Institute to publish, within the framework of the Project, Dolgopolsky's comprehensive *Nostratic Dictionary*, currently in preparation. For it is clear, in view of the methodological difficulties, that historical linguists will best be able to evaluate the status and standing of the proposed Nostratic macrofamily when they are in possession of a very substantial body of data. If the Nostratic hypothesis is accepted, the *Nostratic Dictionary*, building on Dolgopolsky's earlier work and that of Illich-Svtych, will clearly be a fundamental and pioneering contribution to our understanding of the prehistory of Europe and Western Asia and of the principal languages of these regions. But first, until that acceptance be achieved, it will serve as the basic exposition and exemplification of the Nostratic hypothesis itself, and therefore, quite properly, become the object of critical examination by historical linguists.

It is hoped that the present volume will permit the first stage in that process of critical evaluation. As indicated above, the intention is to follow it with a further volume of critical studies which will form part of the evaluative process. Dolgopolsky's important paper in many ways speaks for itself. If the initial hypothesis (of the validity of the proposed macrofamilial relationships and



equivalences) is accepted, then it throws a flood of light upon the world of the Upper Palaeolithic and perhaps the Early Neolithic of a vast segment of the earth. This would be of the greatest importance for prehistoric archaeologists and for all those concerned with the early human past. At the same time since the language families involved include, in the modern world, so high a proportion of the world's languages, the Nostratic proto-language (if the hypothesis is accepted) offers fundamental insights into the earliest discernible origins of these various languages. The prospect is therefore a very exciting one. In the few pages of this Introduction I shall try to touch upon some of these issues, drawing upon an earlier paper (Renfrew 1991), while very much aware as a non-linguist how difficult it is to evaluate or comment upon the central hypothesis, namely the validity of the Nostratic macrofamily concept. I am aware also that this is not an easy task for linguists, and it is therefore in a spirit of enquiry, and in the hope of clarifying the current status of the Nostratic hypothesis (and that of other proposed macrofamilies) that this volume is published

### **The Nostratic hypothesis**

The Nostratic hypothesis, in its earliest form, was put forward in 1903 by the Danish linguist Holger Pedersen, who drew attention to similarities between a number of the language families of the Old World, including Semitic, Indo-European, Uralic, Altaic and Eskimo-Aleut (Pedersen 1931). He suggested that these could be regarded as belonging to a larger linguistic unity, which he proposed to call 'Nostratic', a term derived from the Latin *nostras* (genitive *nostratis*), 'our countryman'. The terminology is somewhat ethnocentric, and for that reason Dolgopolsky's term 'Boreic' (Dolgopolsky 1973) or Joseph Greenberg's 'Eurasianic' might be preferable (Greenberg 1987, 332). But at least it is clear.

Implicit within such thinking is the Darwinian evolutionary model, first made explicit for languages in graphic form by Schleicher (1863), that the languages under comparison, if they are judged to be related, are 'sprung from some common source' (Jones 1786), that is to say from a hypothetical ancestral language or proto-language. For instance the languages which Sir William Jones recognized in 1786 as related, and which were regarded as belonging to a language 'family' later termed Indo-European, were assumed all to be the descendants of a hypothetical ancestral language, Proto-Indo-European. Population groups would have become divided or separated through the circumstances of history, and the language or dialects spoken by them would become increasingly different, through isolation and the passage of time, until the languages of these groups could be

regarded as different. The process is analogous to that of genetic drift.

The Romance languages formed the prime exemplar for many early historical linguists, being evidently descended from a proto-language which in this case was not hypothetical but known, namely late Latin. The individual Romance language (French, Spanish, Romanian etc.), were seen to stand in the same relation to Latin as did Latin, Old Slavonic, classical Greek etc. to Proto-Indo-European. All this is familiar enough and generally accepted. One of the great tasks of Indo-European comparative linguistics has been to understand the phonological regularities, the sound shifts, which led from the ancestral Latin to the various Romance languages, and in the same way from the reconstructed Proto-Indo-European to its descendant language families.

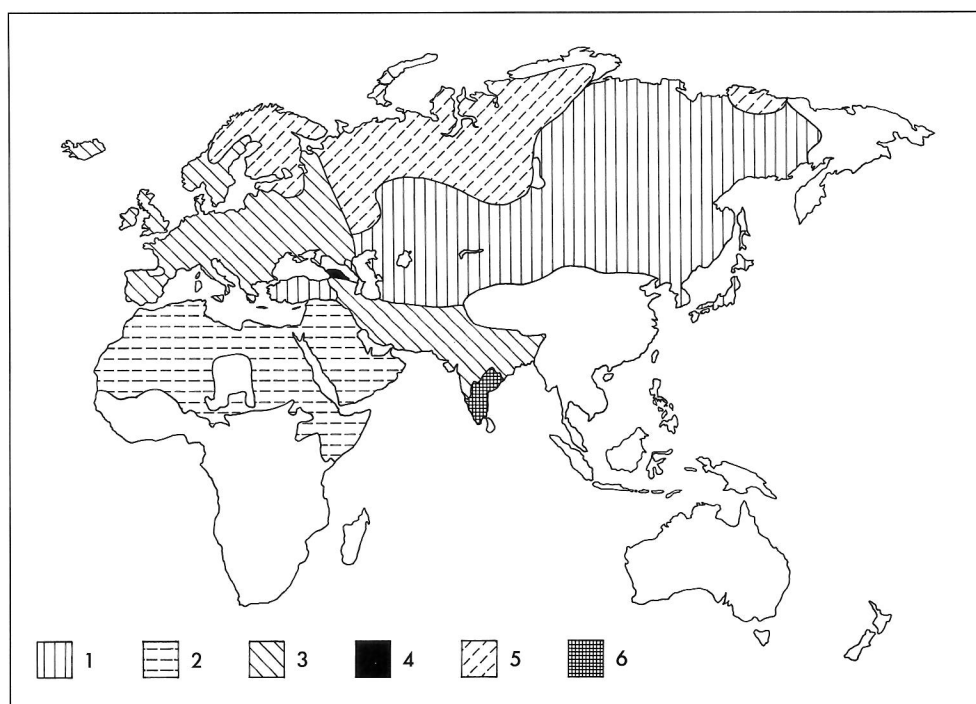
The Nostratic approach undertakes the analogous but bold task of going one step further back in time, from the language families in question, each with its ancestral proto-language, to a further and earlier hypothetical ancestor, Proto-Nostratic, which would, in a similar way be the ancestor of Proto-Indo-European, Proto-Uralic etc. The Nostratic macrofamily would thus include the various families (Indo-European, Hamito-Samitic, Uralic etc.), just as these (e.g. Indo-European) contained the specific sub-families (Romance, Slavonic, Germanic etc.) and languages (French, Polish, Dutch etc.).

The detailed development of this theory has been the work principally of two scholars (see Kaiser & Shevoroshkin 1988), namely Vladimir Illich-Svitych and Aharon Dolgopolsky. Illich-Svitych (1989; 1990; and references in the paper by Dolgopolsky) was unfortunately killed in a road accident in August 1966, and his work is only now becoming more widely known in the west (Bulatova 1989). Aharon Dolgopolsky developed the principal ideas independently and then was for some time a colleague of Illich-Svitych; he subsequently emigrated from Russia to Israel (Dolgopolsky 1973, and references in his paper).

The concept which thus emerged, as glimpsed by Pedersen, was of a much larger superfamily or macrofamily or linguistic phylum than had previously been proposed, embracing a whole series of lesser families. At its heart, at some very early time (set by many Nostratic scholars as some time before 15,000 BC), lies the notion of the Nostratic proto-language, a higher level proto-language, the common ancestor of all the proto-languages within the group.

The language families which Illich-Svitych and Dolgopolsky recognized as having a common ancestral family relationship in this way are:

- the Indo-European language family
- the Afroasiatic family
- the Dravidian family

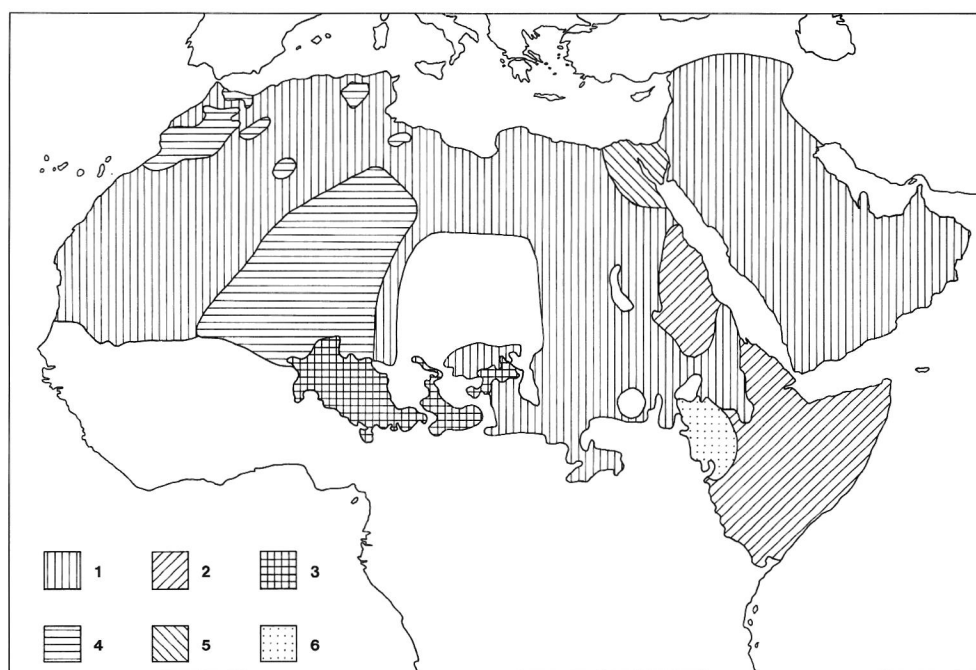


**Figure 1.** *The Nostratic macrofamily. The present-day distribution of the language groups within the Nostratic macrofamily. The constituent language families are: (1) Altaic; (2) Afroasiatic; (3) Indo-European; (4) South Caucasian (Kartvelian); (5) Uralic; (6) Dravidian.*

- the Altaic family
- the Kartvelian (South Caucasian) family
- the Uralic-Yukaghir family.

This offers an astonishing and breathtaking perspective — a vast linguistic panorama (Fig. 1). The present extent of the Indo-European family, that is to say the land occupied by its speakers, covers most of Europe, plus Iran, Pakistan, and much of India along with Sri Lanka (not to mention the products of later colonization in the Americas and the southern hemisphere).

The Afroasiatic language family itself is of very considerable extent (Fig. 2): it is often termed ‘Hamito-Semitic’ ( see Diakonoff 1965; 1988). Since the 1920s its reality as a real family grouping, to be regarded as the descendant of a single ancestral language (i.e. Proto-Afroasiatic or Proto-Hamito-Semitic), has been generally accepted (Meillet & Cohen 1924; Cohen 1947). It coincides to a considerable extent with the grouping recognized by Joseph Greenberg (1963) and termed by him ‘Afroasiatic’.



**Figure 2.** *The Afroasiatic languages. The present-day distribution of languages within the broader language groups which have themselves been classified together within the Afroasiatic family or macrofamily. The constituent language families are as follows: (1) Semitic; (2) Cushitic; (3) Chadic; (4) Berber; (5) Ancient Egyptian; (6) Omotic. (Based on Ruhlen 1991, 86)*

The Altaic language languages are not generally recognized as forming so close-knit a family as the above (Miller 1991), indeed as Ruhlen (1991, 130) puts it: ‘There is no consensus today on either the membership or the subgrouping of the Altaic family’. It should be noted that in the discussion which follows Dolgopolsky now includes Korean and Japanese within the Altaic family.

There is considerable convergence between the position of the Nostratic scholars and that adopted by Greenberg (1987, 259) for his Eurasiatic macrofamily, as set out in detail by Ruhlen (1991, 383). It should be noted, however, the Greenberg would include the Eskimo-Aleut languages and Chukchi-Kamchatkan, as well as Ainu and Gilyak within the Eurasiatic macrofamily, while excluding the Afroasiatic, Kartvelian and Dravidian families. So although the macrofamily concept is similar in each case, there are very significant differences. It is to be hoped that these matters will be discussed in some detail when Dolgopolsky’s paper is circulated for comment.



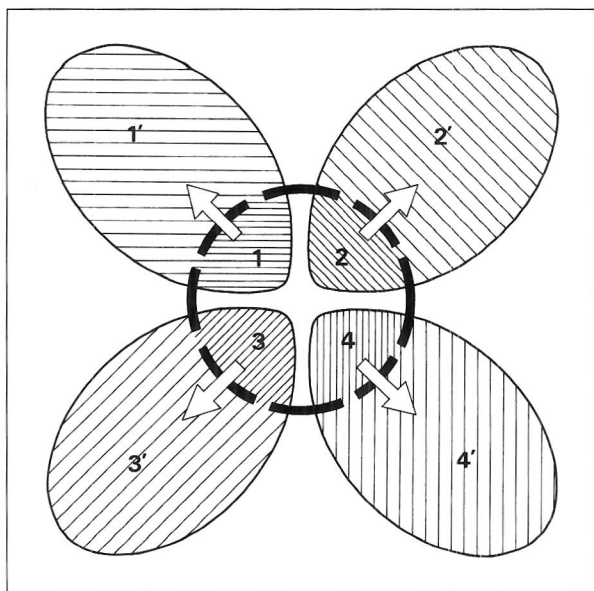
### **The archaeological background to Nostratic**

To each language family there must be some underlying archaeological reality. When various populations speak related languages, this circumstance must be the result of concrete historical processes, operating at specific places and at particular times. Linguists have generally assumed (with the notable exception of Trubetzkoy (1939)) that the languages of such a family are indeed the descendants of a proto-language, and that this will have been spoken by a group of people at a given place and time. Archaeologists have generally accepted this view, and have therefore sought the ancestral homeland of the speakers of the proto-language. Such has certainly been the case, for instance, with the Indo-European languages, and the search for the homeland of the Proto-Indo-Europeans, well discussed by Mallory (1989), has been an exhaustive one, still without definitive outcome.

If the Nostratic hypothesis be accepted, the problem becomes a very much bigger one. What sort of homeland does one envisage for the ancestral Proto-Nostratic language far back in time, very possibly in the later part of the Upper Palaeolithic period? Is it really appropriate to speak, in this case, of a restricted homeland for a well and perhaps narrowly defined group of people?

Here Dolgopolsky's paper gives rich food for speculation. He has used the methods of linguistic palaeontology to give what seems like a remarkably full description of what might be regarded as the original environment of the Proto-Nostratic speakers before some of them thought it preferable to leave the area. I have myself argued for caution when making use of a hypothetical protollexikon (Renfrew 1987, 77–82). Earlier generations of archaeologists have argued that the Proto-Indo-Europeans must have been pastoralists rather than agriculturalists, on the grounds that very few words for domesticated food plants are reconstructed into the protollexikon. But more recently archaeologists have come to realise that early Eurasian pastoralists must have been familiar with the crop plants of their agricultural contemporaries. So the absence of such terms from the protollexikon must be viewed as unexplained happenstance rather than as the absence of such elements from the original environment of the Proto-Indo-Europeans. This caution on negative evidence need not, however, detract from the real significance of positive occurrences, so long as the possibility of semantic shift is borne in mind.

The linguistic relationships between neighbours in the Nostratic macrofamily would seem to carry some implications for the location of the speakers of the relevant proto-languages, some considerable time ago. Such arguments led

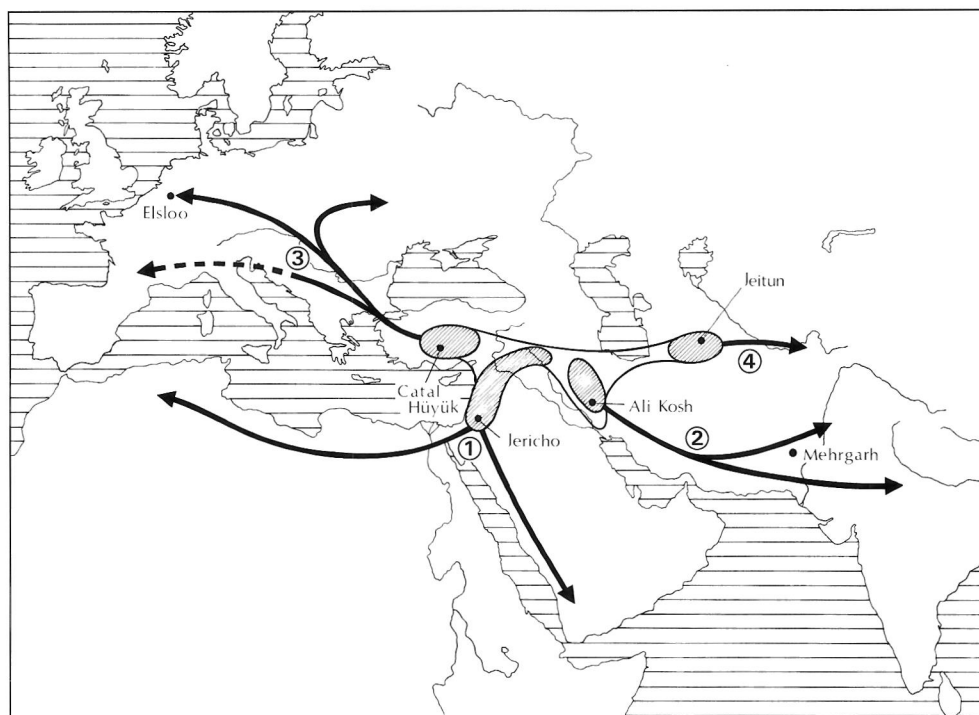


**Figure 3.** *Idealized model showing the relation between farming origins and language dispersal. When a transition to primary farming occurs within an area with some linguistic diversity (shown within the broken circle) the consequence of the agricultural dispersal is likely to be a series of linguistic replacements in adjoining areas. The lobes represent the areas occupied by the resulting language families derived from the corresponding proto-languages. Such processes may underlie the distribution of several of the world's linguistic macrofamilies: the corresponding version of this hypothesis for the Nostratic macrofamily is represented in Figure 4. (After Sherratt & Sherratt 1988.)*

Dolgopolsky, on purely linguistic grounds, to place the homeland of the speakers of Proto-Indo-European in central Anatolia (Dolgopolsky 1987; 1993), and led Gamkrelidze and Ivanov (1984; 1990; see Gamkrelidze 1990) to locate it in eastern Anatolia (although without adopting the Nostratic hypothesis).

I have suggested (Renfrew 1996) that the distributions of a number of the world's language families may be explained in terms of agricultural dispersals (see Bellwood 1996; Diamond 1997), and that what may hold for the Indo-European family (Renfrew 1987) might similarly be applicable to the other members of the Nostratic macrofamily. This idea is neatly summarized in a diagram devised by Andrew and Susan Sherratt (Sherratt & Sherratt 1988).

It can be suggested, therefore, that the distribution of the languages of the Nostratic macrofamily may be due, at least in part, to processes of agricultural dispersal, and that the original homeland of the Proto-Nostratic speakers lay in western Asia. It is postulated, in particular, that the speakers of Proto-Indo-European were at home in central Anatolia, and the speakers of Proto-Afroasiatic in the Levant, perhaps to be associated with the very early Neolithic of sites such as Jericho. The proposed relationship between the Dravidian languages and Elamite (McAlpin 1974; 1981) may be adduced here, and a homeland for Proto-Elamo-Dravidian located in southwestern Iran (the modern Khuzistan) suggested, where very early farming is well documented at sites such as Ali Kosh. For Proto-Kartvelian, the southern Caucasus might



**Figure 4.** Hypothetical application of the model shown in Figure 3 to account for the distribution of the Nostratic macrofamily. Agricultural dispersals of the related protolanguages originally located within the area where primary farming developed (hatched) are postulated as underlying the subsequent distributions of the (1) Afroasiatic, (2) Elamo-Dravidian, (3) Indo-European, and (4) Altaic language families.

itself lie within the primary zone of agricultural origins, or close to it. And Proto-Altaic might have been spoken in Turkmenia, a region of very early agricultural production. If these are the points or areas of departure around 7000 BC for the early processes of farming dispersal, we can imagine a rather earlier Proto-Nostratic, perhaps already with regional dialects, spoken over a territory including most of these areas, which in particular may well have embraced the region where the Pre-Pottery Neolithic A farming economy first developed (Bar-Yosef 1989) (see Fig. 4).

The appropriate location for the speakers of Proto-Uralic-Yukaghir is less clear, and the region between the Ural mountains and the lower Ob river of western Siberia has been suggested (Hajdu 1964), with a possible dispersal northwards by speakers of the Finno-Ugrian branch to the region of northeastern Europe and the Ural mountains. Nor is it evident that its speakers were in fact agriculturalists. Professor Dolgopolsky has indicated (pers. comm.) that the lexical data

show that the speakers of Proto-Finno-Ugrian and probably of Proto-Uralic did not have agriculture, husbandry or pottery but were excellent fishermen. There was indeed a population dispersal northwards, into the Ural mountains and north-western Asia at the end of the Pleistocene period, but the economy was for long one based upon fishing and gathering as well as hunting (see Dolukhanov 1994).

Insofar as these theories involve actual movements of people they may ultimately be open to evaluation by means of molecular genetics. Already aspects of the distribution of gene frequencies in the relevant areas have suggested early population movements compatible with the suggestions made here (Barbujani & Pilastro 1993; Barbujani *et al.* 1994). Further work may well offer support and corroboration, or the converse. If the above suggestions do find support, they will offer a whole new perspective upon the prehistory of Europe, western Asia, south Asia and the Asiatic steppes, as far indeed as Korea and Japan. These are big issues.

It follows from these considerations that Proto-Nostratic would represent the language in its original area of distribution of the population at a time before these various agricultural dispersals took place, and therefore prior to the full development of the Neolithic economy. Such a view may harmonise very well with the content of the word lists developed here by Dolgopolsky which seem to represent the world of the Upper Palaeolithic or Mesolithic hunter-gatherer, apparently prior to the inception of a farming economy.

### **Problems with macrofamilies**

These intriguing speculations are, however, predicated upon the validity of the Nostratic hypothesis. It is relevant, therefore, to take note of the criticisms which have been levelled, by competent linguists, at a number of cases where the proposed amalgamation of language families into macrofamilies is claimed to be of genetic validity.

In colloquial terms, it has been suggested that individual linguists tend to be either ‘lumpers’ or ‘splitters’. The former are quick to see relationships, and to acknowledge the existence of larger linguistic units: they are predisposed to look favourably upon macrofamilies. The splitters, on the other hand, are meticulous in their scholarship, and apt to find fault with individual etymologies and comparisons. Having found fault they are likely to doubt the generalisation, and to place reliance instead upon smaller language units about which they can have greater confidence.

The senior historical linguist among the lumpers must be Joseph Greenberg, whose analysis of the African languages (Greenberg 1963) into just four



macrofamilies (one of them Afroasiatic, as discussed above) was initially criticized upon methodological grounds. The principal criticism was that he relies upon multiple lexical comparisons, comparing directly the words in contemporary languages, without attempting the reconstruction of the relevant proto-languages, following the well-established comparative method, according to the normal practice of historical linguists. Despite this criticism, his classification of the African languages has proved so convenient that it has been adopted almost universally, although that does not necessarily imply that all linguists see the groupings as valid genetic units rather than as simple taxonomic conveniences.

However when Greenberg turned to the languages of the Americas (Greenberg 1987) his work provoked much greater opposition, and indeed sometimes hostility (e.g. Campbell 1986). The objections were broadly the same as in the African case, but they were not so easily overcome. Interestingly there has been what seems strong support for his work from the field of molecular genetics, where ‘tribal private polymorphisms’ — molecular genetic particularities restricted to a single tribe — suggest not only long periods of stability and relative genetic isolation, but also some support for his overall structure of taxonomic relationships. It is perhaps too early to draw firm conclusions, but there is the hope that evidence from molecular genetics will cast more light upon population histories which may in turn have a bearing upon language history also.

In other parts of the world inclusive macrofamilies are certainly being proposed. In southeast Asia, the proposed recognition of an Austric macrofamily (Blust 1993) has formed the basis for the bold archaeological reconstruction of population movements (Higham 1996). Bellwood (1996) has noted a number of other such cases where agricultural may have been accompanied by language dispersal. But these are proposals about supposed correlations between the archaeology and the historical linguistics: they do not, in themselves, validate the existence of the proposed macrofamilies.

When it comes to the Nostratic hypothesis, some of the criticisms levelled at the work Greenberg may not hold. For both Illich-Svitych and Dolgopolsky have worked to analyze the relevant sound correspondences, very much within the tenets of the Brugmannian method. Nonetheless Anna Morpurgo Davies (1989, 167) has well expressed the reservations which a number of senior historical linguists clearly feel:

Linguists seem to be relatively clear about what a language family is. If we say that two languages are related, i.e. ultimately derive from the same parent language, we also predict that the further back we go in time the more similar the forms of the two languages will turn out to be — this may be particularly clear for grammatical forms. If I assume that Greek and Iranian

are related I also predict that ancient Greek must be closer to Old Persian than Modern Persian. On the other hand I do not see any reason to predict that Early Tamil (a non-Indo-European language) must be closer to Ancient Greek than to Modern Greek. We make these predictions with some confidence because over the years we have developed and tested the method which we use to demonstrate linguistic kinship. This obviously starts by comparing words but then goes back further and makes use of regular phonological correspondence and, if possible, of morphological comparison. On the other hand, if we take as an example of how superfamilies are established the latest book by J. Greenberg about the languages of America, we discover that there the methodology is very different. Greenberg does not rely on phonological or morphological correspondences, but on what he calls 'multilateral comparison', i.e. on lexical similarities studied in a number of languages at the same time. He jettisons the standard techniques not because they lead to wrong conclusions but because they do not allow him to go beyond standard families. Yet we do not know whether superfamilies established in this way have the same properties as the families established with the standard comparative method. If they do not, there is a serious risk that the whole concept of superfamily is vacuous. At the moment it is not clear to me whether this is or is not so and I would like some enlightenment.

The operational difficulty lies in each case in developing some methodology which will allow doubts and reservations about the real existence of macrofamilies to be followed through and tested. It should again be noted however that the criticisms levelled against Greenberg's method of multilateral comparison are not entirely appropriate in the case of the Nostratic macrofamily, whose exponents do indeed establish phonological correspondences, and seek to use the standard comparative method (see Anttila 1972)

It is, as Ruhlen (1991; 1994) has remarked, often the more traditional Indo-Europeanists who are most hostile to such approaches, particularly when the outcome does not harmonise with what they sometimes consider to be well established conclusions. This is well exemplified by a recent, authoritative work which pronounces as follows (Sergent 1995, 398: my translation):

Moreover a whole school of linguists holds that Indo-European, Semito-Hamitic, the groups of languages termed 'Altaic' (Uralic, Turk, Tungus, Mongol), Dravidian, and more besides, form a single immense group termed 'Nostratic'. A Russian team has thus formed the 'Moscow Nostratic circle' to study these relationships (Dolgopolsky 1986). In reality they are based essentially on vocabulary, and the structure of the languages is scarcely considered (indeed the group called 'Altaic' is in this sense an artificial one). Among all these comparisons, only those between Indo-European and Semito-Hamitic appear to rely upon early and deep relationships.

It should be understood that such observations must perforce be based upon rather brief accounts of the Nostratic hypothesis: Sergent refers only to short articles by Dolgopolsky and Illich-Svitych. Dixon's recent and severely negative assessment ('There is no reputable historical linguist anywhere in the world, who accepts the claims of Greenberg and the Nostraticists') may work from simi-

lar limitations (Dixon 1997, 37–44). It will therefore be interesting to see whether so dismissive a tone can be maintained in face of the more ample word-lists offered here, and ultimately in the light of Dolgopolsky's forthcoming *Nostratic Dictionary*.

### How to judge?

There must be some means, within the field of historical linguistics, of reaching a conclusion on such matters. It is not difficult to see that corroborative data can come from other disciplines. We have seen that statements from historical linguistics which have a bearing upon population history may well be tested by archaeological means, and in particular by applications of molecular genetics. But such applications can never tell us anything *directly* about a specific language, or about linguistic relationships *per se*.

The evidence for such familial (or macrofamilial) relationships has always come primarily from individual words, and more persuasively from collections of individual words. These are precisely what Aharon Dolgopolsky offers in the main body of his text. When words of equivalent or related meaning occur in two languages (or more), and the forms of those words suggest that, taking account of systematic sound changes, they may derive from a hypothetical common ancestor, then there is strong evidence of family relationship. Of course there are provisos about the exclusion of loan words etc. But one can at once see that such arguments in favour may be criticized on at least three grounds. First the semantic equivalence may not be so close as to inspire confidence. Secondly the proposed regularities for sound change may not be sufficiently precise as closely to determine the two versions in the two languages concerned. And thirdly the formal equivalences may not carry conviction: the similarity may not be sufficient. All these issues have to be assessed soberly for each specific case.

Already such disagreements have developed with reference to comparisons between constituent language families of the Nostratic macrofamily. Klimov (1991) criticized the equivalences between Kartvelian and Indo-European offered by Illich-Svitych for a number of words in his substantial Nostratic vocabulary. Several of Klimov's objections were, in turn, subject to criticism by Manaster-Ramer (1995) who took a more favourable view of the original proposals.

Clearly the arguments in favour may carry greater conviction when appropriately derived word forms carrying the relevant meaning are found in a whole series of languages within the macrofamily. But the sceptic may claim that when the number of constituent languages is large (as in the Nostratic case) the likeli-

hood of some apparent formal equivalences occurring here and there among them just by chance is commensurately greater. Ultimately these are questions in the field of probability, but they are very difficult to assess quantitatively.

Perhaps all that one may hope for is precisely what Dolgopolsky here offers: a large number of concrete cases presented for our consideration. To a layman it seems improbable in the extreme that the equivalences which he shows would be the product of purely random variations among words which in fact have no genetic relationship. But that is an assessment by a non-specialist. What we await is the judgement of specialists. There is no doubt that the Nostratic hypothesis, if considered valid, is of the highest interest to prehistorians, and indeed to those concerned with population history, as well as to historical linguists. But it is for the historical linguists in the first instance to decide whether the evidence on offer is sufficient to lead to the general acceptance of the hypothesis.

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# The Nostratic Macrofamily and Linguistic Palaeontology

Aharon Dolgopolsky





# *Classification of the Nostratic languages*

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# Classification of the Nostratic languages

## I. Indo-European

A. *Anatolian*: Hittite, Luwian, Hieroglyphic Luwian, Palaic, Lydian, Lycian;

B. *Narrow Indo-European*: (1) Indo-Iranian (Aryan): [1a] Indo-Aryan: Old Indian, Middle Indian (Pali, Prakrits), New Indo-Aryan lgs., [1b] Iranian: Avestan, Old Persian, Middle Persian (Pahlavi), New Persian, Tajik, Kurdish, Sogdian, Yaghnobi, Pushtu (Afghan), Pamir languages (Wakhi, etc.), Khotan Saka, Old Scythian, Ossetic, etc., [1c] Nuristani and Dardic languages (incl. Kafir); (2) Greek, Macedonian; (3) Phrygian; (4) Thracian, Dacian, Albanian; (5) Illyric, Messapic; (6) Italic: Latin (with the Romance languages), Oscan, Umbrian; (7) Venetic; (8) Celtic: Gaulish, Celtiberic, Goidelic (Old Irish, Middle Irish, [New] Irish, Scottish Gaelic), Brythonic (Welsh, Cornish, Breton); (8) Germanic: Gothic, Old Runic Scandinavian, Old Norse, Icelandic, Faroese, Swedish, Danish, Gutnian, Norwegian, Old High German, Middle High German, New High German, modern German dialects, Yiddish, Old Saxon, Middle Low German, Dutch (with Afrikaans), Anglo-Saxon (Old English), Middle English, English; (9) Balto-Slavic: [9a] Baltic: Lithuanian, Latvian, Prussian, [9b] Slavic: Old Church Slavonic, Church Slavonic, Bulgarian, Macedonian Slavic, Serbo-Croatian, Slovene, Czech, Slovak, Low Lusatian (Low Sorbian), High Lusatian (High Sorbian), Polabian, Polish, Old Russian, Russian, Belorussian, Ukrainian; (10) Armenian; (11) Tocharian.

## II. Hamito-Semitic (Afroasiatic)

A. *Semitic*: (1) Eastern Semitic: Akkadian, (?) Eblaitic; (2) Central Semitic: [1] Canaanite: Old South Canaanite, Hebrew, Phoenician (with Punic), Ugaritic, Amorite, etc., [2] Aramaic lgs.: Old Aramaic, Imperial Aramaic, Jewish Aramaic, Syriac, Mandaic, etc., [3] Arabic, Maltese, Thamudic, Safa'itic, etc.; (3) South Semitic: [1] Old South Arabian (Sabaic, Minaean, Qatabanic, Himyaritic, etc.), Ethiosemitic: Old Ethiopian, Ge'ez, Tigre, Tigray (Tigrinya), Amharic, Harari, Gurage lgs., etc., [2] South-East Semitic: Mehri, Harsusi, Jibbali, Soqotri, etc.;

B. *Egyptian*: [Ancient] Egyptian, Demotic Egyptian, Coptic;

*C. Berber*: Old Libyan (Numidian), Twareg (Ahaggar Twareg, Eastern Tawellemmet, Tayert, Ghat, etc.), Kabyle, Tashelhit, Tamazight, Rif, Beni-Iznacen, Srar-Senhazha, Mzab, Wargla, Nefusi, Siwa, Ghadamsi, Aujila, etc.; Guanche;

*D. Cushitic*: (1) Beja; (2) Agaw (= Central Cushitic): Awngi, Bilin, Kemant, Kwara, Khamir (Khamtanga), etc.; (3) East Cushitic: [1] Lowland East Cushitic: Afar, Saho, Somali, Boni, Rendille, Baiso, Oromo (Galla), Konso, Gidole, Arbore, Dasenech, Dullay cluster (Tsamay, Hollango, Gawwada, Harso, etc.), Yaku, [2] Highland East Cushitic: Sidamo, Darasa, Hadiya, Kambatta, Burji, etc., (4) Dahalo (not yet classified); (5) South Cushitic: [1] Iraqw, Alagwa, Gorowa, Burunge, [2] Asa, Kwadza, as well the Cushitic layer of loanwords within Mbugu;

*E. Omotic*: (1) North Omotic: Kaffa, Mocha, Anfillo, Shinasha, Omoto dialect cluster (Gofa, Wolayta, Dawro, Oyda, Basketo, Badditu, Doka, Zayse, Kachama, Chara, Ganjule, Zergulla, Male, Dache, Gamu, etc.), Janjero, Bench, She, etc., (2) Dizoid: Maji, Na'o, Shako, (3) South Omotic: Ari, Bako, Dime, Hamer;

*F. Chadic*: (1) West Chadic: [1a] Hausa, Gwandara, [1b] Angas-Goemay: Angas, Sura, Goemay (Ankwe), Kofyar, Montol, Yiwom (Gerka), Chip, Tal, etc., [1c] Bole-Tangale: Bole, Dera, Karekare, Tangale, Pero, Kirfi, Bele, Gera, etc., [1d] Ron gr.: Bokkos, Daffo. Butura, Fyer, Kulere, Sha, Tambas, [1e] North Bauchi lgs.: Warji, Tsagu, Kariya, Mburku, Miya, Pa'a, Siryanchi, Diri, Jimbin; [1f] South Bauchi: Boghom, Dwat, Guruntum, Jimi, Polchi, Saya, Wangday, Zar, Kir, Dira, Geji, etc., [1g] Ngizim, Bade, Duwai; (2) Central Chadic: [2a] Tera gr.: Tera, Ga'anda, Pidlimti, etc., [2b] Bura-Margi gr.: Margi, Bura, Chibak, Kilba, Wamdiu, etc., [2c] Higi gr., [2d] Bata-Bachama gr.: Bata (Bata-Garua & Bata-Demsa), Bachama, Nzangi, Gude, Gudu, Fali of Jilbu, Fali of Muchella, Fali of Bwagira, Mwulyen, etc., [2e] Lamang, [2f] Mandara gr.: Mandara, Dghwede, Glavda, Gava, Nakatsa, Padokwo, etc., [2g] Sukur, [2h] Matakam gr.: Giziga, Mafa, Mofu-Gudur, Matakam, etc., [2i] Daba, Kola, Musgoy, [2j] Gidar, [2k] Kotoko: Logon, Kotoko, Buduma, Affade, etc., [2l] Musgu gr.: Musgu, Musgum-Pus, Mulwi, etc., [2m] Masa lgs.: Masa, Bana, Banana, Lame, Lame-Peve, Zime, Zime-Batna, etc.; (3) East Chadic: [3a] Kera, Kwang, [3b] Kabalay, Lele, [3c] Somray, Ndam, Tumak, [3d] Sokoro, [3e] Dangla, Bidiya, Mokilko, Migama, [3f] Mubi, Jegu, Birgit.

### III. Kartvelian

(1) Old Georgian, Georgian; Zan: Megrelian, Laz, (2) Svan.

### IV. Uralic (Uralo-Yukagir)

A. *Finno-Ugrian*: (1) Finno-Permian: [1a] Finno-Lappish; {1a $\alpha$ } Balto-Finnic: Finnish, Karelian, Estonian, Livonian, etc., {1a $\beta$ } Lapp (Lappish), [2] Erzya-Mordvin and Moksha-Mordvin, [3] Cheremis, [4] Permian: Old Permian, Ziryene, Permyak, Yazvian dial., Votyak; (2) Ugrian: [2a] Hungarian, [2b] Ob-Ugrian: Vogul and Ostyak;

B. *Samoyedic*: (1) Nenets, Enets, Nganasan, (2) Sölqup, (3) Kamassian, Koibal, (4) Mator-Taigi-Karagas;

C. *Yukagir*.

### V. Altaic

A. *Turkic*: (1) Bulghar gr.: Old Bulghar, Chuvash; (2) Narrow Turkic: Old Turkic, Middle Turkic, Old Uighur, [2a] Oghuz: Old Osman, Middle Osman, Osman Turkish, Turkish, Gagauz, Azeri, Türkmen, Salar, etc., [2b] Qipchaq: Old Qipchaq, Middle Qipchaq (incl. Cumanic), Qumıq, Qarachay-Balqar, Crimean Tatar, Karaite, Volga Tatar, Siberian Tatar dialect cluster, Bashqurt (Bashkirian), Noghay, Qazaq, Qaraqalpaq, etc., [2c] Qırgız, Standard Altay, Altay-Kizhi, Qumanda, Quu-Kizhi, Teleut, [2d] Chaghatay, Uzbek, East Turkic (New Uighur), [2e] Khakas, Saghay, Qacha, Shor, Chulım, Beltir, Sarıg-Yugur, [2f] Tuva, Tofalar, [2g] Yakut, [2h] Khalaj;

B. *Mongolic*: Middle Mongolian, Classical (Written) Mongolian, Halha-Mongolian, Buryat, Classical (Written) Oirat, (New) Oriat, Kalmuck, Ordos, Dagur, Monguor, Dongxiang (Tunghsiang), Baoan, Old Moghol, Moghol;

C. *Tungusic (Manchu-Tungus)*: [1] Ewenki, Negidal, Solon, Lamut, [2] Nanay, Orochi, Ulcha, Ude, Orok, [3] Manchu: (Classical [Written] Manchu, spoken Sibe Manchu), Jurchen;

D. *Korean*;

E. *Japanese*.

## VI. Dravidian

(1) South Drav.: Tamil, Malayalam, Kota, Toda, Tulu, Kannada, Kodagu, (2) South-Central Drav.: Telugu, Gondi, Konda, Manda, Pengo, Kui, Kuwi, (3) Central Dravidian: Gadba, Kolami, Naiki of Chanda, Naikri, Parji, (4) Northern Drav.: Kurukh, Malto; (5) Brahui.

For a more detailed and comprehensive classification of languages (and dialects) cf. my *Nostratic Dictionary* (in preparation).

# *The Linguistic Palaeontology of the Nostratic Macrofamily*

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## Transcription signs and other symbols

In my papers I distinguish between transcription (rendering the phonemes and allophones of the language in question) and transliteration (rendering the characters of the original script). For transcription (as well as for reconstructions) a unified transcription script is used: a, b, c, d, e, etc., while for transliteration (as well as for rendering the original Roman spelling of the language in question and for literal quoting of other scholars) a special transliteration-quotation script is used: a, b, c, d, e, etc.

The transliteration is either traditional (for languages with long scholarly tradition of transliteration, such as Old Indian, Avestan, Gothic, etc.) or partially approaching our transcription system (e.g. for Egyptian we use z, s, h, x, ʃ, c and ʒ instead of Erman-Grapow's s, s', h, h, h, t and d respectively, for the ancient Semitic languages we use h, x, ʃ, θ, δ, θ and ʃ instead of the traditional h, h, g, t, d, z and d of the Orientalistic transcription). For Tamil, Malayalam, Tulu, Kannada and Telugu we use the traditional indological transliteration.

### Main transcription signs:

#### *I. Consonants:*

ʔ — glottal stop; ʰ — weak glottal stop, sub-phonemic glottal stop, glottal stop as a feature of an adjacent phoneme; ʕ — epiglottal voiced approximant (Arabic ع); bʰ (= b̥) — injective glottalized or preglottalized b; β (= b̥) — fricative b; c — voiceless hissing affricate (= tʃ), like german z in Herz; cʰ — glottalized (ejective) c, Nostratic emphatic c; č — palatal (or palatalized) voiceless sibilant affricate (≈ Polish c); čʰ — ejective č, Nostr. emphatic č; č̣ — voiceless hushing affricate (like English tʃ); čʰ — ejective č, Nostr. emphatic č; ĉ — voiceless lateral affricate; ĉʰ — ejective lateral affricate, Nostr. emphatic ĉ; ĉ̣ (in proto-Kartvelian) = Klimov's c₁; ĉ̣ʰ (in proto-Kartvelian) = Klimov's c₁ʰ; ɕ — voiceless palatal stop (like Hungarian tɕ); ɕ̣ — voiceless lingual affricate (without phonemic distinction between c, c', č and ĉ) or a voiceless palatal or sibilant consonant (without phonemic distinction between affricates and ɕ or between sibilant affricates and pure [fricative] sibilants); dʰ (= d̥) — injective glottalized or preglottalized d; ɖ — uvularized ('emphatic') d, like Modern Standard Arabic ض; ɖ̣ (= ɖ̥) — voiced fricative dental (English θ in this, Spanish d in nada); ɖ̣̣ — uvularized ('emphatic') ɖ̣, like Arabic ظ; ɖ̣̣̣ = postalveolar (cacuminal, cerebral, retroflex) d; ɸ (= ɸ̥) — fricative voiceless bilabial consonant (bilabial f); ɸ̣ (= ɸ̥) — injective glottalized or preglottalized ɸ; ɸ̣̣ = voiced uvular stop; ɣ — voiced velar fricative (fricative ɣ), like in Spanish trigo; ɣ̣ — voiced uvular fricative (like Arabic غ); ɣ̣̣ — uvularized



strong (yielding  $h$ ,  $h$   $h$  in Hittite)  $a$ -colouring laryngeal ( $\approx$  Puhvel's  $*A_1$ );  $\bar{x}$  — strong (yielding  $h$ ,  $h$   $h$  in Hittite)  $e$ -colouring laryngeal ( $\approx$  Puhvel's  $*E_1$ );  $x^w$  — strong (yielding  $h$ ,  $h$   $h$  in Hittite)  $o$ -colouring laryngeal ( $\approx$  Puhvel's  $*A_2^w$ );  $H$  =  $h|x$ ;  $\bar{H}$  =  $\bar{h}|\bar{x}$ ;  $H^w$  =  $h^w|x^w$ ;  $h$  — weak laryngeal (lost in Anatolian) of unknown colouring ( $\approx$  Puhvel's  $*H_2$ );  $X$  — strong laryngeal (yielding  $h$ ,  $h$   $h$  in Anatolian) of unknown colouring ( $\approx$  Puhvel's  $*H_1$ );  $?$  — weak laryngeal (yielding zero in Anatolian), lost in zero-grade of apophony (unlike all other laryngeals, which yield Narrow Indo-European  $*a$  in the zero-grade of apophony);  $H$  — unspecified laryngeal ( $\approx$  Puhv.'s  $*H$ ).

## 2. Vowels:

$\text{ä}$  (=  $\text{æ}$ ) — front low vowel;  $\text{â}$  — vowel intermediate between  $\text{ä}$  and  $a$ ;  $\text{ã}$  — labialized low vowel;  $\text{e}$  — high  $a$ ;  $\text{ɑ}$  — back  $a$ ;  $\text{ʌ}$  — central low-mid vowel (in Korean  $\text{ʌ}$  = Korean {Lee}  $\text{ʌ}$ , {Starostin}  $\text{ä}$ , {Ramstedt}  $\text{ə}$ );  $\text{ɛ}$  — front low-mid vowel;  $\text{ə}$  — ultra-bref (reduced) central vowel, or ultra-bref vowel without phonologic distinction of quality (in Chuvash  $\text{ə}$  = orthographic  $\text{ě}$ );  $\text{ɜ}$  — back mid vowel (like Estonian  $\text{õ}$ ; in Korean  $\text{ɜ}$  = Korean {Lee}  $\text{ə}$ , {Starostin}  $\text{ə}$ , {Ramstedt}  $\text{ə}$ );  $\text{ɪ}$  — low  $i$  (like  $i$  in English  $\text{b i t}$ );  $\text{ɨ}$  — high mid vowel (like Russian  $\text{ɨ}$ );  $\text{ɯ}$  — high back vowel (as Turkish  $\text{ɯ}$ );  $\text{ɤ}$  — labialized back low-mid vowel (like British English  $\text{ɔ}$  in  $\text{d o g}$ );  $\text{ö}$  (=  $\text{œ}$ ) — labialized front mid vowel (labialized  $\text{e}$ );  $\text{õ}$  — labialized front low-mid vowel (labialized  $\text{ɛ}$ );  $\text{ō}$  — vowel intermediate between  $\text{ö}$  and  $o$ ;  $\text{ω}$ ,  $\text{ω}$  (=  $\text{ɔ}^1$ ) — high  $o$ , intermediate between  $o$  and  $u$ ;  $\text{θ}$  — centralized  $o$ ;  $\text{◌}$  — non-phonemic vocoid;  $\text{◌}$  — non-phonemic vocoid (schwa secundum) in proto-IE;  $\text{◌}$  — preconsonatic voiceless vowel glide (as in Lappish) [the same sign is used when the final part of the preceding vowel is voiceless (as in Lule-Lappish, as described by Wiklund:  $\text{◌}$  = Wiklund's  $\text{ɔ}$ )];  $\text{u}$  — low  $u$ ;  $\text{ü}$  — labialized front high vowel (labialized  $i$ ), like German  $\text{ü}$  and French  $\text{u}$ ;  $\text{ū}$  — labialized front lowered high vowel (labialized  $\text{ɪ}$ );  $\text{ũ}$  — vowel intermediate between  $\text{ü}$  and  $u$ ;  $\text{ʉ}$  — centralized  $u$ ;  $\text{ɐ}$  — ultra-short back vowel (=  $\text{ə}$  of the Finno-Ugric Transcription) [ $\text{ɐ}$  = Chuvash  $\text{ä}$ , Volga Tatar and Bashqurt short  $\text{ɨ}$ , High Cheremis  $\text{ɨ}$ ];  $\text{ɐ}^o$  — ultra-short rounded back vowel (= Volga Tatar and Bashqurt  $\text{ɔ}$ );  $\text{ɐ}$  — ultra-short (reduced) front vowel [ $\text{ɐ}$  = Volga Tatar, Bashqurt  $\text{ə}$ ,  $\text{e}$  (after a consonant)];  $\text{ɐ}^o$  — ultra-short rounded front vowel (= Volga Tatar, Bashqurt  $\text{ə}$ );  $\text{ɜ}$  — central mid vowel.

## 3. Diacritical signs:

(1) with consonant letters:

$\text{ᶛ}$  ( $\text{s}^1$ ,  $\text{t}^1$ ,  $\text{b}^1$ ) — glottalization (both ejective and voiced injective), including preglottalization, in Nostratic reconstructions it denotes an emphatic

articulation (without commitment as to its exact phonetic articulation: glottalization, aspiration or tenseness); ʘ (ḡ, ḟ, ṭ) — uvularization ('emphasis', as in Arabic and Berber); ˆ (to the right of the letter: tˆ, kˆ, pˆ) — fortis; ˊ (to the right of the letter: tˊ, kˊ, pˊ) — lenis; ʰ (to the right of the letter: tʰ, kʰ, pʰ) — aspirate; ʰ (to the left of the letter: ʰt, ʰt, ʰt) — preaspirate; ˉ (to the right of the letter: bˉ, gˉ, dˉ, zˉ, rˉ, lˉ, mˉ, nˉ, ŋˉ) — devoiced or half-voiced = small caps of the Finno-Ugric Transcription; ˘ (under the letter: b˘, d˘, g˘, k˘, p˘, t˘, q˘) — fricativity resulting from lenition (fricative variants of phonemes or morphophonemes, as in Hebrew, Aramaic and Berber); ˚ (ṭ, ḡ, ṇ) — alveolar (in contrast with dental or post-dental) consonant [ṭ, ḡ, ṇ = ṭ, ḡ, ṇ of the Dravidianist notation]; ʷ (to the right of the letter: kʷ, gʷ, ɣʷ) — palatalization; ˘˘˘ (over the letter) or ˘˘ (to the right of the letter) — weak palatalization (e.g. palatalization); ˠ (to the right of the letter: kˠ, gˠ, ɣˠ) — labialization; ˜ (over the letter) — nasalization; ˞ (ṣ, ṇ, etc.) = ˞ (ṣ, ʃ, etc.) — postalveolar or retroflex consonants; ʂ, ʐ, ʃ — domal infradental infralabialized sibilants, like in Central Jibbali (Johnstone's ʃ, ʐ, ʃ) or in Twi (Ghana) [ʂ = [ʃ]] of the IPhA transcription];

(2) with vowel letters:

˜ denotes nasality: ã = nasal a [in Slavic languages nasality is denoted by a cedille: a = ã]; ˘ (over the letter) denotes creaky phonation of vowels: ɪ̰ is creaky i (and Tuva ɪ̰), while ɪ̰ is creaky i (and Tuva ɪ̰); ˘ and ʰ (before the letter) denote "interrupted" vowels (in Ude) (the sign chosen in accordance with the source: ʰ if the source indicates a kind of h); ˘ (under the vowel letter) denotes close vowels (e˘ = e, closed e) [in Tungusic it denotes vowels of the higher series of synharmonism]; ˘ (under the vowel letter) denotes open vowels (e˘ = e) [in proto-Tungusic and Tungusic languages it denotes the vowels of the lower series of vowel harmony]; ˘ denotes retracted vowels (a˘ = retracted a); ˘ denotes advanced vowels (a˘ = advanced a); ˘ (under the letter) — broadened vowel; ˘ (under the letter) — narrowed vowel; ˘ denotes front vowels (ä, ü, ö); ˘ denotes half-front vowels (õ, õ); ˘ denotes glides (English mʊ [maɪ], Spanish bien [bjen], bueno [ˈbueno]); ˘ (to the right of the vowel letter) denotes devoiced vowels (as in Japanese and Oromo prosody).

#### 4. Quantitative differences of vowels:

Vowel letters without diacritics of length or shortness denote short vowels (in languages with an opposition short vs. long) and normal ('full') vowels (in languages with an opposition normal vs. ultra-short and with a triple opposition long vs. short vs. ultra-short) [an exception: special letters for

ultra-short (reduced) vowels  $\text{ə}$ ,  $\text{ɐ}$ ,  $\text{ɪ}$ ;  $\text{̣}$  is a sign for short vowels, e.g.  $\text{ạ̄}$ ;  $\text{̣}$  (on the higher supralineal level) denotes an ultra-short vowel, e.g.  $\text{ạ̄}$ ; letters followed by  $\text{˘}$  denote half-long vowels; letters with a macron  $\text{̄}$  or with a following colon  $\text{:}$  denote long vowels; letters followed by  $\text{:˘}$  denote ultra-long vowels.

## 5. Tones and stress

$\text{'}^{\text{1}}$  (before the syllable) — full stress;  $\text{'}$  (before the syllable) — weak stress. The tones are denoted mostly by supralineal signs over vowels, e.g. by signs of the second supralineal level (higher than regular supralineal signs):  $\text{'}$  — high tone [in Korean and Japanese this sign is quoted after Starostin's papers];  $\text{˘}$  — low tone [in Kor. and Jap. this sign is quoted after Starostin's papers];  $\text{ˆ}$  — middle tone;  $\text{ˆ}$  — falling high-to-mid tone;  $\text{ˆ}$  — falligh high-to-low tone;  $\text{ˆ}$  — falling mid-to-low tone;  $\text{ˆ}$  — rising low-to-high tone;  $\text{ˆ}$  — rising low-to-mid tone;  $\text{ˆ}$  — rising mid-to-high tone (mid rise tone);  $\text{ˆ}$  — high rise tone (as in Wedekind's records of Janjero);  $\text{ˆ}$  — very low tone;  $\text{ˆ}$  — very high tone. In proto-Slavic reconstructions the syllabic intonation (Slavic accents) are denoted according to the Slavistic tradition.

## 6. Uncertainty signs, signs of reconstruction

$\text{|}$  "or" ( $\text{a|e}$  means "a or e").

Capital letters denote classes of phonemes:  $\text{P}$  = unspecified labial stop,  $\text{T}$  = unspecified dental stop,  $\text{K}^{\text{r}} = \text{k}^{\text{r}}|\text{g}$ ,  $\text{H}$  = unspecified laryngeal,  $\text{X} = \text{h}|\text{x}$ ,  $\text{Γ} = \text{ɣ}|\text{ʎ}$ ,  $\text{L}$  = unspecified lateral resonant,  $\text{R}$  = unspecified vibrant, flap or tap,  $\text{N}$  = unspecified nasal consonant;  $\text{C}$  = unspecified affricate,  $\text{Z}$  = unspecified voiced affricate,  $\text{S}$  = unspecified sibilant (or lateral obstruent) [ $\text{s}$ ,  $\text{ś}$ ,  $\text{š}$ ,  $\text{ŝ}$ ,  $\text{z}$ ,  $\text{ž}$ ,  $\text{ž}$ ,  $\text{ž}$ , Kartv.  $\text{š}$ ],  $\text{Z}^{\text{r}} = \text{ž}^{\text{r}}|\text{z}$ ,  $\text{U}$  = unspecified round vowel,  $\text{E}$  = unspecified front vowel.

$\text{∇}$  (or  $\text{∨}$ ) is an unspecified vowel.

$\text{⊥}$  (in reconstructions) is an unspecified consonant; in formulas we use  $\text{C}$  as a general sign for consonant.

$\text{X}$  is an unspecified back vowel (or unspecified non-front vowel).

$\text{[ ]}$  — uncertainty brackets:  $\text{[a]} = \text{a}$  or similar.

$\text{[ ]}$  — uncertainty brackets:  $\text{[a]} = \text{a}$  or nothing.

$\text{*}$  — sign of reconstruction.

$\text{*}^{\circ}$  — a reconstruction based on one daughter- or granddaughter-language only.

$\text{**}$  — a questionable reconstruction or a result of "internal reconstruction".

$\text{?}$  — a questionable Nostratic etymology, or a questionable cognate.

$\text{?σ}$  — a semantically doubtful connection.

- ? $\varphi$  — a phonetically doubtful connection.  
 ? $\mu$  — a morphologically doubtful connection (the derivation is not clear, the root structure is deviant, etc.).  
 amb — a word\root is ambiguous, i.e. may have two (or more) different etymologies.  
 ¿ — a questionable reconstruction of a daughter-language, or (before ‘...’) a questionable semantic interpretation of a reconstructed or an attested word; ‘the sign ‘¿’ before a language name means that the very existence of the form in question is dubious.  
 ʌ — a possibly ideophonic root (incl. onomatopoeic and Lallwort).  
 \* — sign of a non-existing form or a non-existing meaning.  
 err. — erroneously.

## 7. Other signs

✓ — consonantic verbal root (in the Hamito-Semitic languages); ~ — variant forms;  $\mathfrak{A}$  — dialectal variants; / — apophonic and other morphological variants of a root\stem distributed according to their morphological function; \ = "or", "and\or" (e.g. in definitions of meaning and among alternative hypothetic reconstructions);  $\rightarrow$  — source of borrowing, borrowed to (**a**  $\rightarrow$  **b** = ‘**b** borrowed from **a**’);  $\leftarrow$  — borrowed from (**a**  $\leftarrow$  **b** = ‘**a** borrowed from **b**’);  $\rightarrow$  — source of derivation (**a**  $\rightarrow$  **b** = ‘**b** derived from **a**’);  $\leftarrow$  — derived from (**a**  $\leftarrow$  **b** = ‘**a** derived from **b**’); | | — bar between primary families of languages (Hamito-Semitic, Kartvelian, Indo-European, Uralic, Altaic, Dravidian, Elamic); ||| — bar between secondary families (Anatolian IE, Narrow IE, Semitic, Egyptian, Cushitic, Chadic, Finno-Ugrian, Samoyed, Yukagir, Turkic, Mongolian, Tungusian, Korean) within one family: e. g. Turkic ||| Mongolic ||| Tungusic (within Altaic); :: — bar between branches of families (e.g. Germanic, Balto-Slavic, East Cushitic, Central Chadic, Finno-Permian, Ugrian); : — bar between subbranches (e.g., Slavic [within Balto-Slavic], Iranian [within Indo-Iranian], Baltic Finnic, Ob Ugrian, Bole-Tangale); ¶ — sign preceding comment referring to a secondary family; ¶¶ — sign preceding comment referring to a primary family; ◇ — sign preceding comment referring to a Nostratic etymon; ÷ = ‘akin to’, ‘a cognate of’.

# The Linguistic Palaeontology of the Nostratic Macrofamily

## 1. The Nostratic macrofamily

This is a hypothetic macro-family of languages, including Indo-European, Hamito-Semitic [= Afroasiatic] (Semitic, Egyptian, Berber, Cushitic, Omotic and Chadic), Kartvelian, Uralic (Finno-Ugric, Samoyed and Yukagir), Altaic (Turkic, Mongolic, Tungusic [Manchu-Tungus], Korean and Japanese), and Dravidian. The hypothesis is based on a large amount (more than 2000) of common roots and many common grammatical morphemes, in which regular sound correspondences have been established (cf. Illich-Svitych 1967; 1968; 1971–84; Dolgopolsky 1964; 1969; 1970; 1984; 1989; 1992; 1995). Among the most important resemblances is that of personal pronouns and inflectional person-markers of the 1st and 2nd persons (\*mV for ‘I’ in Indo-European, Uralic, Altaic and Kartvelian, \*t̥ü > \*t̥i for ‘thou’ in Indo-European, Hamito-Semitic, Uralic, Mongolic, etc.), that of interrogative pronouns (originally \*k̥o for ‘who’ and \*mi for ‘what’, preserved entirely or partially in Indo-European, Hamito-Semitic, Kartvelian, Uralic and Altaic), basic lexical roots such as \*ʔeśo ‘stay’ (> ‘be’) preserved in Indo-European (\*es-), Hamito-Semitic, Uralic and Kartvelian, \*ʔitā ‘to eat’ (Indo-European, Ham.-Sem., Mongolic), \*bari ‘to take’ (all branches except Uralic), \*wetV ‘water’ (all branches except Kartvelian), \*nimʔV ‘name, to name’ (Indo-European, Hamito-Semitic, Uralic, Altaic), as well as words connected with culture of the final palaeolithic age, e.g., \*kālū ‘woman of another moiety’ > words for ‘daughter-in-law’, ‘sister-in-law’ and ‘bride’ in Indo-European (Latin *glōs*, Greek *γῆλωρ*, Slavic \*zōlv-), Semitic, Uralic, Altaic and Dravidian. The original Nostratic phonology (as reconstructed by V. Illich-Svitych and A. Dolgopolsky) had a rich consonant system (opposition of voiced — voiceless — emphatic [= ejectives or fortes], three series of sibilants and affricates, lateral obstruents, laryngeal, pharyngeal and uvular consonants) and 7 vowels. The grammatical structure was, most probably, analytical with a rigid word order (a sentence-final verb, attribute precedes its head, pronominal subject follows its verb) and with grammatical meanings expressed by word order, postpositions (\*nu for genitive, \*ma for marked accusative, and others) and grammatical pronouns.

## 2. Language relationship and history

*What historical evidence is provided by comparative linguistics?*

A. The very fact of certain languages being related suggests that the corresponding ethnic entities had some sort of historical connection: either common origin or at least intimate cultural relationship (the latter for the case of transmitting a language to neighbours, conquered peoples, etc.). If there is an Indo-European language family, it means that there had to be an ancient linguistic community of speakers of Proto-Indo-European and there were historical conditions responsible for the common origin of different Indo-European descendant languages.

B. Loanwords in a language provide evidence for cultural connections between the borrowing and the lending language. If the loanwords denote trade articles, they suggest routs of ancient trade. If they are not names of merchandise, they prove that the two language communities were neighbours. Semitic loanwords in proto-IE, Indo-European loan-words in Kartvelian, absence of proto-Indo-European loanwords in Uralic, proto-Aryan (proto-Indo-Iranian) loans in Finno-Ugric are very important arguments helpful in resolving the problem of the Indo-European homeland (*cf.* Dolgopolsky 1975; 1987; 1988; 1993; the results coincide with those of Renfrew 1987).

C. The analysis of meaning of the words present in a proto-language (the common ancestor of languages in a family) casts some light on the way of life, geographical, historical and cultural parameters of the corresponding linguistic community. The traditional name of this field in linguistics is *palaeontology of language*, or *linguistic palaeontology* (*cf.* Pictet 1859–1863, Pisani 1938), or (in reference to Indo-European) *Indo-European antiquities* (Schrader 1901).

In dealing with linguistic paleontology we must be aware of dangers resulting from the unsteadiness of meanings of words, from the very fact that every language is adapted to the communicative requirements of the corresponding society and epoch, and therefore may lose words and meanings which were important in the remote past, but are not any more today. When feathers as an instrument of writing were replaced by metallic pens, the word for ‘feather’ was transmitted to ‘pen’ (French *plume*, German *Feder*, Russian *перо*, etc.). The Samoyeds of today use the ancient word for ‘arrow’ to denote the bullet. If the concepts and meanings which were important in the past, but are not any more today, the language often cannot afford the *luxus* of preserving special roots for such out-of-day concepts and meanings and replaces them by more economic (from the point of view of memory) derived or compound words and phrases. Thus, the ancient rich and complicated system



of kinship terms for relatives by marriage (important in a patriarchal society of clans and large families) is replaced in modern English by *-in-law*-constructions, and in French by *beau-/belle-*compounds. Instead of the Indo-European words *\*dajwēr* ‘husband’s brother’, *\*syēyros* ‘wife’s brother’ and *\*sweliyos* ‘wife’s sister’s husband’ the English say indiscriminately *brother-in-law*, and the French use the courteous construct *beau-frère*. For the Indo-European *\*ĝlōus* ‘husband’s sister’ and *\*yenatēr* ‘husband’s brother’s wife’ the English say *sister-in-law*, and the French say *belle-sœur* (which is gallant for ladies, but useless for historical linguistics) [cf. Delamarre 1984, 38–43]. Sometimes ancient words are preserved, but precious semantic nuances have been lost. Thus, we can reconstruct scores of Nostratic words for cutting, and we may guess that there were semantic differences between them (different ways of cutting, directions of cutting, material of cutting, goals of cutting), but all these ‘subtle’ differences (subtle for the modern languages, but precious for historians and relevant for those ancient people) have been lost. In this respect we the linguists may envy the archæologists who have direct information about the ancient tills and ways of cutting. *Verba volant, lapides manent*.

Nevertheless, comparative linguistics (making use of historical phonology, morphology, and typology of semantic changes) can provide important information or at least confirm the existing archæological and anthropological information about ancient people, their life and culture.

### 3. Where and when?

Let us try to use linguistic palaeontology of the Nostratic macrofamily in order to determine the geographical and temporal parameters of the common Nostratic linguistic community.

#### 3.1. Where?

The reconstructible Nostratic lexical stock (according to my comparative dictionary — in preparation) suggests subtropical climatic conditions in the original home of Nostratic. A Middle European or Siberian homeland is ruled out by words like *\*ṛibrE* ‘fig tree’, *\*SiwṽngE* ‘leopard’, *\*ṛūṛṽwṽ* ‘leopard’ or ‘lion’, *\*ĉiṛbṽyṽ* ‘hyena’, *\*ṛoṛu* and *\*gurHa* (below #[36]) ‘antelope’, etc. Tropical countries are ruled out by words for *\*šünU* and *\*čaṛlUgṽ* ‘snow’, *\*ḵirṽuqa* ‘ice’, *\*ĉṛaṛRṽ* ‘hoarfrost’, etc.

[1] \*ʔibrE ‘fig tree’ > **Hamito-Semitic**: Semitic \*ʔibar- > Arabic ʔibr-at- ‘sycamore tree’ (pl. ʔibar-) ||| Cushitic: Oromo abru ‘fig tree’ ||| Chadic: Giziga ʔurof ~ ʔɜrof ‘sycamore tree’; ? Hausa ɓaure (<\*ɓabre), with ɓ > \*ʔb; ? Migama bârà (pl. bàrri) ‘figuier (rouge)’ || **Dravidian** \*ir- ~ iɽ- ‘fig (tree)’ > Tamil iratti ‘joined ovate-leaved fig’, ‘subserrate rhomboid-leaved fig, *Ficus gibbosa tuberculata*’, iratakam ‘joined ovate-leaved fig’, irali ‘white fig’, irɽi ‘tailed ovate-leaved fig’, itti ‘white fig, *Ficus infectoria*’, ‘stone fig, *Ficus talboti*’, Malayalam itti ‘waved leaved fig-tree, *Ficus venosa*’, Kodagu itti ‘*Ficus (gibbosa?)*’ (< -tt- \*-rt-).

[2] \*ɕiʔibɳɳ (or \*ɕiʔibɳɳ) ‘hyena’ > **Hamito-Semitic**: Semitic \*ʕabu- ~ \*ʕabu- id. > Post-Biblical Hebrew (Babylonian tradition) ɕābōʕ, Biblical Hebrew (Masoretic trad.) ɕābōʕ ‘hyena’ (popular etymology interpreting the word as a passive participle ɕābōʕ ‘a died one’), pl. ɕābōʕim, Syriac ʔap̄-ā (ʔ < ʕ- by dissimilation), Arabic ɕabu- ~ ɕab-, Ge’ez ʕab- ‘hyena’ || **Altaic**: Tungusic \*ɕipka > Ayan Ewenki ɕipkaku ‘wolf’ || **Dravidian** \*ciɳɳki ‘hyena, tiger-wolf’ or sim. > Kannada sivan̄gi ‘tiger-wolf, hyena’, Telugu ciɳāgi, ciɳvāgi, ciɳvan̄gi, sivāgi, sivan̄hi, sivvan̄gi ‘hyena’, as well as Tamil ciɳiŋki ‘Indian lynx, hunting leopard’, Malayalam ciɳiŋi ‘hunting leopard’ ◇ In Drav. there is coalescence of the etymon in question and Nostr. \*SiɳɳE ‘leopard’.

[3] \*ʔiʔɳɳ ‘large feline’ > **Hamito-Semitic**: Semitic \*ʔarʕay- ‘lion’ or sim. > Hebrew ʔarʕē, ʔarʕī ‘lion’, Biblical Aramaic ʔarʕē, pl. ʔarʕāwā tā, Jewish Aramaic ʔarʕā, Syriac ʔarʕā ‘lion’, as well as Ge’ez ʔarwē ‘wild beast’ ||| Egyptian rʕ ‘lion’ ||| East Chadic: Mubi ʔórúwà ‘lion’, Migama ʔǎ́rúm ‘lion’, Tumak ǎ́rǎw ‘leopard’ || ?? Central Chadic: Musgu àhìráw id. | Lamang árvárè | Mandara ʔuruvʔèrì, Glavda árǎvara, Gava ʔúrvára, Dghwede àrvíre ‘lion’ | Kotoko rávəni id. || **Altaic**: Turkic \*irbiʔ or \*irbilɕ ‘leopard’ > Old Turkic irbiš ~ irbič ‘leopard’, Tuva irbiš id.; Turkic ⇨ Class. Mong. irbis, Halha-Mongolian irwes ‘panther, leopard’; Mongolic ⇨ Altay irbis ‘leopard’ || **Dravidian** \*uɳu- ‘tiger’ > Tamil uɳuɳā, Telugu duɳu, Kolami duv. dū, Gondi dū. dūal ‘tiger’, duwā, duwwal ‘panther’.

[4] **\*SiwŋE** ‘leopard’ > **Indo-European** **\*singʰo-** ‘leopard’ or ‘lion’ > Armenian *inɜ, ɛnɜ* ‘leopard’ || Old Indian *sim̐ha-h* ‘lion’ || Tocharian A *śiśāk*, B *ṣecake* ‘lion’ || **Hamito-Semitic**: East Cushitic **\*zagum** ‘leopard’ > Tambaro *zəgu'ma*, Sidamo *dagūn-čo* ||| Chadic: Hausa *zákɪ̀*, Gwandara *žákʷi* || Kotoko *závəni* || Mokilko *sùwwú*, Kwang *səmki, sémgí* id. || **Altaic**: Tungusic **\*sibi'g'e** ‘large beast of prey’ > Tungir Ewenki *siwigʷ ~ hiwigʷ* ‘wolf’, Ayan Ewenki *siwiyʷ* ‘bear’, Ola Lamut *həwyo ~ həwyʷ*, Okhotsk Lamut *həwəyʷ* id., Orochi *sīwī* (name of a mythical dog) || **Dravidian** **\*ciwŋki** ‘leopard’ and sim. > Tamil *ciwŋki* ‘Indian lynx, hunting leopard’, Malayalam *ciwŋki* ‘hunting leopard’, Kannada *sivaŋgi* ‘tiger-wolf, hyena’, Telugu *ciwāgi, ciwvāgi, ciwvaŋgi, siwāgi, sivaŋhi, siwvaŋgi* ‘hyena’ ◇ In Dravidian there is coalescence of the etymon in question and Nostr. **\*ĉi'ibvʷ** (or **\*ĉi'ibvʷ**) ‘hyena’

[5] **\*ʔor'u** ‘antelope (male), deer’ > **Hamito-Semitic**: Semitic **\*ʔarway-** > Akkadian *arwium* ‘gazelle (male)’, Arabic *أروية* *ʔurwiyyat-* (pl. *أروى* *ʔarwā*) ‘mountain goat’, Ge'ez *አርዌ* *ʔarwē* ‘beast, animal’ (merger of two roots) ||| Cushitic: Dahalo *ʔārōle* ‘eland’ || **Altaic**: Mongolic: Class. Mong. *orunɣu*, Halha-Mongolian, Buryat *orongo* ‘a kind of small dark antelope with long flat horns’ ||| Tungusic **\*oron** ‘reindeer’ > Ewenki *oron*, Lamut *orɔn*, Negidal *oyon*, Orochi *oro*, Ude *oro~olo*, Ulcha *oro(n-)*, Nanay *orō* ‘domestic reindeer’, Manchu *oron buxu* id. || **Dravidian** **\*Uṛ-ay-** ‘deer’ > Tamil *ur̥ay*, Tulu *uræ, ule* ‘deer’, Parji *ur̥up* ‘spotted deer’.

[6] **\*maŋ'g'v** or **\*maN<sub>L</sub>i'g'v** ‘monkey’ > **Hamito-Semitic**: East Chadic: Mubi *móŋgò* ‘small black monkey’ || **Altaic**: Tungusic **\*moŋo** > Manchu *monio moŋo* ‘(a kind of) yellowish monkey with a short tail’, Sibe-Manchu *moŋ(u)*, Northern Manchu *məŋu* ‘monkey’ || **Dravidian** **\*maŋk-** ‘monkey’ > Malayalam *moŋa*, Kannada *maŋga*, Koraga *maŋgi* ‘monkey’, Tulu *maŋge* id., ‘ape’ ◇ The origin of English *monkey* and of the Romance word **\*monna** (> Spanish, Portuguese *mona, -o* ‘monkey’, Italian *monna*, French *mone* ‘female monkey’) remains rather obscure. They may be loanwords of unknown origin. Nothing is known about their possible connection with Nostr. **\*maŋ'g'v** ‘monkey’.

[7] \*šūŋU ‘snow’ > **Indo-European** \*sneigʷh- ‘to snow’, \*snigʷh-, \*snoigʷh- n. ‘snow’ > Old Indian \*snēha- > Prakrit siṇeha- ‘snow’, Shugnani žəniž id., Avestan snaēžā- ‘to snow’ || Greek νίψ-α (accus.) ‘snow’, νείφει ‘it snows’ || Latin nix (gen. nivis) ‘snow’, nivit ‘it is snowing’ || Middle Irish snecht(a)e ‘snow’ (with a \*t-suffix like in Greek νιφετός ‘falling snow, snowstorm’), Irish sneachta, Welsh nyf ‘snow’, nyfio ‘to snow’ || Old High German, Anglo-Saxon snīwan ‘to snow’, Old Norse snýr ‘it snows’, Gothic snaiws, Anglo-Saxon snāw, Old High German snēo, English snow, German Schnee, Danish sne, Swedish snö ‘snow’ || Lithuanian sniẽgas, Latvian sniēgs, Prussian snaygis ‘snow’ | Slavic \*sněgъ id. > Old Church Slavonic снѣгъ sněgъ, Russian снег, Polish śnieg, Czech sníh, Croatian sniēg, Serb снѣг, Bulgarian снѣг ¶ The prehistory of the word may be represented as follows: \*šūŋU > \*šijU > \*šingU > \*Snigu > IE \*sneigʷh- (for details of the vowel changes see Dolgopolsky 1995, 17–22) || **Uralic:** Finno-Ugric \*šūŋe ‘wet snow’ > Finnish hyö ‘ice, melting snow’ | proto-Lappish \*sōvē ‘snow with ice and water’ > Norwegian Lapp suovve ‘wet snow’ || **Altaic:** Tungusic \*sūŋü ‘hoarfrost, snow’ > Ewenki siŋi-ksə id., siŋi-lgən ‘snow’, Nanay suŋgu ‘hoarfrost’, Classical Manchu su(ŋ)- ‘to become covered with hoarfrost’ ||| Turkic \*seŋ (or \*säŋ) ‘ice floe, block of ice’ > Qazaq, Nogay seŋ id., Qaraqalpaq seŋ ‘ice, ice floe’ (‘лед, льдина’) ||| Mongolic \*söŋ > Class. Mong. sōŋ, Halha-Mongolian cəŋg sōŋ, Kalmuck sōŋ ‘small pieces of ice in a river’ ||| Japanese śimo ‘hoarfrost, frost’ || ? **Hamito-Semitic:** Egyptian šny.t, šnʕ ‘haily weather’.

[8] \*čaíU.gʷ ‘snow’ or ‘hoar-frost’ > **Hamito-Semitic:** Semitic \*ʔalag- ‘snow’ > Hebrew לַגִּיץ ʔəleḡ, Aramaic לַגִּיץ təʔlag, status emphaticus לַגִּיץ tal'gā, Syriac st. emph. ܠܓܝܬܐ tal'g-ā, Arabic ܠܓܝܬܐ ʔalḡ-, Akkadian šal-g-u ‘snow’ || ? Berber: Kabyle a-salu, pl. i-sula ‘couche de neige’ || **Uralic:** Finno-Ugric \*čʰaíU.gʷ > proto-Vogul \*šaí- ‘hoar-frost’ > Southern Vogul šaí, šaí, Western and Eastern Vogul šaí, Northern Vogul soí || **Altaic** \*čʰaíka > Turkic \*tōí ‘ice’ > Old Turkic toš ‘glacier in the mountains’, Altay, Tuba, Qumanda toš, Tuva doš, Tofalar d\_ǰš ‘ice’, Volga Tatar tuš ‘water over the ice of rivers\lakes (наледь)’, Yakut tohō- ‘to break ice in a

river' ||| Tungusic \*jalka 'fine snow' > Negidal jalka id., jalka- 'to snow' (of fine snow).

[9] ?? \*č'a'R? ▽ 'hoar-frost', (>) 'frozen soil' > **Hamito-Semitic**: Semitic \*✓θr? > Arabic ظُرْأُ θur? - 'frozen earth, frozen mud' || **Kartv.** \*čχ|qar- > Tush Georgian čχar-i 'hoarfrost' || **Altaic**: Mongolic \*čar > Class. Mong. čar, Halha, Kalmuck цар 'layer of frost on the surface of snow; hard crust on snow' ||| Turkic: Teleut čar+m id.

[10] \*k'ir<sub>L</sub>u<sub>q</sub>a 'ice, hoarfrost; to freeze' > **Hamito-Semitic**: Semitic \*k'ar<sub>L</sub> ▽<sub>χ</sub>- 'ice' > Biblical Hebrew חָרָף k'eraḥ 'ice, frost', Syriac k'arḥ-ā, Akkadian k'arḫ-u 'ice', Akkadian ✓k'arḫ (inf. k'arāḫu) 'freeze' ||| ? Berber \*✓krr > Rif akarra 'grêle' ||| ? East Cushitic: Oromo qorra 'cold, coldness', qorra 'to freeze, make cold', Sidamo qorra 'frost, hoarfrost, severe cold', qorra 'to be\feel cold, freeze', Darasa qōrra 'frost' ¶¶ The Berber and Egyptian roots may alternatively go back to Nostr. \*K'arh ▽ 'ice, hoarfrost' || **Kartvelian**: Lechkhumi Georgian k'ruχ-wa n. 'cold' ('Kälte') || **Indo-European** \*k'ēr<sub>L</sub>a<sub>1</sub>-, \*k'ērnos 'ice crust, snow crust, hoarfrost' > Armenian saṙn (gen. saṙin) 'ice' ||| Germanic (< \*k'ērnos): Old Norse hjarn 'snow crust', Old High German hornunc 'February' (← \*'month of ice\snow-crust') ||| proto-Slavic \*sěrnъ (gen. sernà) (< \*k'ērnos) > Russian Church Slavonic срѣнъ srěnъ, Old Russian serennъ, Polish śron ~ śrzon 'hoarfrost', Bulgarian 'cepen 'snow that has frozen together', Czech střín, stříní 'ice on branches of trees', Russian (dial.) ce'pěh, Slovene srēn, Russian, Ukrainian 'cepen 'frozen hard snow' | Latvian sērns id. (< \*k'ērnos); with other derivational suffixes: Lithuanian šer̃kšnas, Latvian sērksnis, sērsna 'hoarfrost' || **Uralic**: [1] Finno-Ugric \*k'ir ▽ > Ob-Ugric \*k'īr > proto-Ostyak \*k'īr 'snow-crust' > Eastern Ostyak kir, Northern Ostyak ker id. ||| [2] with a suffix: Finno-Ugric \*kirte ~ \*kerte 'snow-crust, frozen soil' > Finnish kirsī (obl. cases kirte-) 'frost on the ground, ice-crust', kersī 'thin snow-crust', Estonian kirs 'ice layer' | Highland Cheremis kært 'snow-crust' ||| East. Ostyak kâ'rdam ~ kârtam 'thin snow-crust' || **Altaic** \*k'ir ▽ 'snow, hoarfrost': Turkic \*k'ira-gu 'hoarfrost' > Old Turkic qirāḡū, Chagatay qiraw 'hoarfrost that falls from the sky', Xwarazmi Turkic qirayu, Old Qipchaq qirawū,

Cuman *kirov*, Turkish *kırağ*, Türkmen *qırav*, Azeri *qırov*, Yakut *kırıa*, Tuva *χırā* ‘hoarfrost’; another derivative: Turkish *kırç* ‘abundant hoarfrost’, Gagauz *qırç* ‘hoarfrost, white frost’ ||| ? Mongolic \**kira-gu*<sub>h</sub>, ‘hoarfrost’ > Middle Mongolian *kiraʔu*, Class. Mongolian *kiraqu(n)*, Halha *хяруу*, Ordos *kirū*, Buryat *хюруу*, Dongxiang *qıreu*, Kalmuck *кiry* *kirū* ‘hoarfrost’, Mongolic \**kira-mag* ‘fine snow, first snow’ > Class. Mongolian *kiramag*, Halha *хярмаг*, Buryat *хирмаг* ~ *хярмаг* id., Kalmuck *kirmāg* id., ‘newly-fallen snow’.

If the Nostratic ancient homeland is in a subtropical region, we face a problem of choice: was it in Southern Europe or in the Southwestern Asia? There are two words suggesting an answer: \**Sah<sub>h</sub>i<sub>h</sub>b* ∇ ‘saline earth, desert’ and \**tāl<sub>w</sub>A* (or \**talwä*) ‘cold season, rain’.

[11] \**Sah<sub>h</sub>i<sub>h</sub>b* ∇ ‘saline earth, desert’ > **Dravidian** \**ca<sub>v</sub>a* ‘brackish\saline earth’ > Tamil *ca<sub>v</sub>aṭu* ‘earth impregnated with soda, alkaline soil, sediment; fuller’s earth’, Tulu *ca<sub>v</sub>uḷ*, *ca<sub>v</sub>uḷu* ‘brackish, saline’, Telugu *ca<sub>v</sub>ḍu* ‘fuller’s earth’ || **Hamito-Semitic**: Semitic \**šahb-* (or \**sahb-*) > Arabic *sahb-* ‘desert, desert with saline earth’ ||| East Cushitic \**zib-* ‘desert’ > Saho *ḍib-o*, Afar *ḍub-u*, Benadir Somali *ḍib-aḍ*, Rendille *yip* id. || **Altaic**: Turkic \**sāy* ‘stony desert’ > Old Turkic *sāy* id., Chaghatay (15th c.) *say* ‘a river that flows in the winter and is dry in summer’ || **Uralic** \**śšōy<sub>w</sub>a* ‘clay’ [contamination with Nostr. \**śab<sub>h</sub>ʔ* ∇ ‘soil, clay’] > Ter Lapp *śū<sub>h</sub>ve*, Kildin Lapp *śū<sub>h</sub>yä* ‘Ton, Lehm’ | Permian \**śōy* ‘clay’ > Ziryene *сёй śōy*, Upper Sisola Ziryene *śōy*, Yazvian *ʹśūy*, Votyak *сюй śuj* ||| Samoyedic: Taz *Sölqup sō* ‘earth, soil; clay’, Koibal *se* ‘Ton’.

[12] \**tāl<sub>w</sub>A* or \**talwä* ‘cold season, rain’ > **Indo-European** \**del-* ‘rain, dew’ > Armenian *teḷ* ‘heavy rain’, *teḷam*, -em, -um ‘to cause to rain heavily, open the windows of heaven’ ||| Middle Irish *delt* ‘dew’, Breton *delt* ‘moist’ || **Uralic** \**tāl<sub>w</sub>ä* ‘winter’ > Finnish *talvi*, Estonian *talv* | proto-Lappish \**tāl<sub>w</sub>ē* > Norwegian Lapp *dal<sub>w</sub>e* | Erzya-Mordvin *теле teḷe*, Moksha-Mordvin *тѣла tēla* | Highland Cheremis *tel*, Eastern Cheremis *tēla* | Ziryene *tə<sub>v</sub>*, Yazvian *tōl* ‘winter’ ||| Ob-Ugric \**tēl(ə<sub>y</sub>)* ‘winter’ > Southern Vogul *tāl* ‘winter’, Eastern Vogul *tāl* id., *tēli* ‘in

winter'; proto-Ostyak \*těləʏ 'winter' > Vakh Ostyak těləʏ | Hungarian tél  
id. || ? **Altaic**: Turkic \*tolu 'hail' > Turkish dolu, etc.

These two Nostr. words suggest Southwestern Asia as a homeland. Indeed, saline earth is very typical in Southwestern Asia, but not in Southern Europe. The equation 'winter' = 'rain' is more natural in the Near East (where rain is in winter only, and winter is characterized by rain) than in Southern Europe.

The Nostr. vocabulary shows that the speakers of the Nostr. parent language were by no means a maritime people. We find no words for boats or navigating. There is even no real word for the sea. Of course, there is a word \*yam∇, which apparently means 'sea' in Semitic and some Samoyedic languages. But what kind of a 'sea' is this? The Hebrew word יָם yām is usually translated as 'sea', but is applied not only to the Mediterranean, but also to the 'sea' of Galilee and to the Dead Sea (Hebrew yam ham'melaḥ 'Salty Sea'), which from the modern point of view are lakes. In the Samoyedic languages the word denoted a large river (the Ob), and only in the languages and dialects of those who reached the Arctic ocean (namely Nganasan and Tundra Nenets) the word denotes the sea. Those who in the remote past were not maritime people did not distinguish the sea from other large water bodies.

[13] \*yam∇ 'water body' ('sea, lake' > 'pond'), 'water' > **Hamito-Semitic**: Semitic \*yamm- 'sea' (actually 'large water-body') > Hebrew יָם yām (pl. יָמִים yāmim) 'sea', Phoenician, Ugaritic ym, Aramaic, Syriac yam'm-ā, Arabic yamm- 'sea'; Semitic > Egyptian (from the 18th Dynasty) ym 'sea' ||| ?? Berber \*-ʔam- 'water' (with the masc. article \*ʔa- and the pl. ending \*-ān: \*ʔa-ʔam-ān > ām-an pl. 'water') > Twareg ām-an, Kabyle aman, etc. ||| Chadic \*H∇y∇m- 'water' > Tera ʔyim, Ga'anda yèma, Chibak yèmi, Higi yiemi, etc. || **Uralic**: Samoyedic \*yām 'large water body (sea, large river)' > Nganasan 'дзьяма' džama 'sea', Tundra Nenets jamĩ 'sea, large river', Forest Nenets yěā:m 'large river'.

The words for 'sea' in the descendant languages go back to Nostr. words for 'water body'. The IE word \*mori 'sea' is from Nostr. \*moRE 'water body'. In Egyptian the same root means 'pool', and the speakers of Megrelian (a Kartvelian language, very near to the Black Sea) use this word for 'lake'.

[14] \*moRE 'water body' > **Indo-Eur.** \*mor-, \*mori / \*m̥ri 'sea' > Latin mare 'sea' ||| Celtic \*mori- 'sea' > Old Irish muir (gen. mora), Welsh

mor || Germanic: Gothic *marei*, Old High German *marī*, Old Norse *mar-r* (gen. *mar-ar*) 'sea, lake' || Prussian *mary*, Latvian *mare* 'the Curonian Lagoon (Kurisches Haff)', Lithuanian pl. *mārės* (gen. *mārių*) id., 'sea'; Baltic → Finnish, Estonian *meri* 'sea' | Slavic \**mōre* 'sea' > Old Church Slavonic **морѣ** *morje*, Bulgarian *мо'ре*, Serbo-Croatian *mōre*, Czech *moře*, Slovak *more*, Polish *morze*, Russian 'моpe' || **Ham.-Sem.:** Egyptian *mr* 'pool, channel', Demotic Egyptian *mr* 'haven, land on the seashore', *mrj.t* 'haven' || Central Chadic: Nzangi *mīrɪn* 'river' || **Kartv.** \**mo[ɟ]er-* > Zan \**mo[ɟ]ar-ey* > Megrelian *mere* 'lake' || **Altaic:** Mongolic \**mören* 'large river, lake, sea' > Middle Mongolian *mören* 'large river, stream of water', gen. *mörenü* 'of the sea, of a large river', Class. Mong. *mören*, Halha *мөрөн* 'large river or lake', Kalmuck *mörən* 'river (falling into a sea)', Ordos *mörön*, Monguor *murön*, Dagur *mür(ü)* 'river'.

Ancient speakers of the Nostratic parent language did not know geography and had no maps, they were not a maritime people, therefore they did not distinguish between the sea and other relatively large water bodies. This is also an argument for their localization in Southwestern Asia rather than in peninsular Southern Europe (where an intimate acquaintance with the sea was inevitable).

All this favours the hypothesis of Southwestern Asia (rather than Southern Europe) as the original Nostratic territory.

### 3.2. *When?*

By saying 'When?' we do not mean astronomical time (millennia), but rather cultural time (the Neolithic, Mesolithic or Palaeolithic epochs).

#### 3.2.1. Neolithic? Agriculture, husbandry, pottery?

In contrast to the Proto-Indo-European vocabulary, very rich in terms of agriculture, husbandry and pottery (hence pointing to a Neolithic dating of the Indo-European parent language), the Nostratic vocabulary (as reflected in the extant two thousand etymological entries) has no words that can be unequivocally connected with Neolithic culture.

It has no words for sowing or ploughing, but has words for harvesting (in defiance of the famous maxim).



[15] **\*qaRplp** ∇ ‘to harvest’ (‘cereal’) > **Hamito-Semitic**: Semitic **\*✓χrp** ‘to pluck, harvest’ > Arabic خرف ✓χrf ‘to pluck and gather (fruit)’; Semitic **\*'χurup-**, **\*χarp-** ‘autumn and winter’ (← **\*'harvest-time'**) > Old South Arabian χrf ‘autumn, autumn crops’, Akkadian χarpū ‘early autumn’, Biblical Hebrew חֶרֶף ḥorap ‘winter’, Arabic خُرف χuruf- ‘tempus quo ad autumnum exeunt’, χarīf- ‘autumn’ || **Indo-European** **\*xalorP-** > Hittite harpas, harpiyas ‘feast of harvest’ (‘Erntefeste’) || **Altaic**: Turkic **\*arpa** ‘barley’ > Old Turkic arpa, Turkish arpa, etc. ||| Mongolic **\*arbay** ‘barley’ > Middle Mongolian, Classical Mong. arbay, Halha arway id. ||| Manchu arfa ‘oats, barley’.

[16] **\*zūk** ∇ or **\*zuke** ‘edible cereals, harvest (of wild plants?)’ > **Hamito-Semitic**: Semitic **\*✓zkw** > Arabic ✓zkw ‘to grow’ (of a plant) ||| ? Egyptian sk3 ‘to plough, cultivate a field’, sk3 (noun) ‘harvest of a field’ || **Uralic**: Finno-Ugric **\*sükś** ∇ ‘autumn’ > Finnish syksy, syys id., Estonian sügis, sügise- | proto-Lappish **\*ćzkć** id. > Norwegian Lapp čâk'čâ | Erzya-Mordvin cёксь śokś, Moksha-Mordvin cёксе śokśă, ‘autumn’ | Lowland Cheremis шыже šbžë, Highland Cheremis шăжă šăžă id. | Votyak сѣзъыл сіз'л id. || Ob-Ugric **\*θũʋas** id. > Southern Vogul tüks, Vakh Ostyak sũʋas id. | Hungarian ősz id.

Nostratic had words for cereals (**\*gal** ∇, **\*χänt** ∇, etc):

[17] **\*gal** ∇ ‘cereals’ > **Hamito-Semitic**: Semitic: Arabic ʔall-at- ‘cereals’ || **Kartvelian**: Georgian ʔalva ‘zu mähendes reifes Korn’, possibly also ʔala ‘reicher Ertrag des Feldes’ || **Indo-European** **\*xel̥V̥Jk-** > Hittite halki- ‘grain, corn, grain-crop’ ||| Greek ἄλιξ ‘spelt’ → Latin (h)alica id.

[18] **\*χänt** ∇ ‘kernel, grain’ > **Hamito-Semitic**: Semitic **\*hin̥t-at-** (~ **\*hünt-at-**?) ‘wheat’ > Hebrew חיט'תā, Ugaritic ḥt̥t, Old Aramaic ḥt̥h, Imperial Aramaic ḥnt̥? ~ ḥt̥h, Jewish Aramaic hin̥tə'tā ~ hit̥tə'tā, Syriac ḥet̥tət̥ā, Arabic حنطة hin̥tat-, Akkadian uṭṭatu ‘wheat’ ||| Cushitic: Somali háḍūḍ ‘corn, millet’, Iraqw, Gorowa ɣayitiʔi (pl. ɣayitoʔo) ‘maize’ || **Indo-European** **\*ǵet(e)n-** (metathesis from Nostr. **\*χänt** ∇) >

Hittite *hattar* ‘(a kind of) cereal’ ||| Narrow Indo-European *\*et(e)n-* ‘kernel, grain’ > Middle Irish *eitne* ‘kernel’, Scottish Gaelic *eite* ‘unhusked ear of corn’, *eitean* ‘kernel, grain’ ||| Greek ἔνυος ‘a thick soup of pulse, pea-soup’ || **Dravidian** *\*aṇṭi* ‘kernel’ > Malayalam *aṇṭi* ‘kernel, stone of mango, etc., nut’, Tamil *aṇṭi-kkoṭṭai* ‘cashew-nut’, Kodagu *maṅge aṇṭi* ‘mango stone’.

Unfortunately, the words for cereals do not help us to understand if those cereals were wild or domesticated. Therefore our conclusion about the lack of agriculture is based on a negative argument only: no words for specifically agricultural activities (sowing, ploughing, harrowing, etc.).

We face a similar difficulty in trying to find out whether the speakers of Nostratic were acquainted with husbandry. The words for bovines, sheep, goat and swine are not helpful because they might have denoted both wild and domesticated animals. But there is a more sophisticated way of solving the problem: the criterion of milk as food. Milk as food exists only in societies with husbandry. But in Nostratic we know of no word for milk as food or for milking a female animal. The words of the descendant languages for ‘milk’ and ‘milking’ go back to words with a different meaning. For instance, the Indo-European verb *\*melǵ-* ‘to milk’ (whence English *milk*) goes back to Nostr. *\*mälge* ‘breast, female breast’. The Hamito-Semitic root for ‘milk, to milk’ (Hebrew *ḥalab*, Arabic *ḥalab-* ‘milk’, the South Cushitic word for ‘milk’) go back to Nostr. *\*ḥalb* ∇ ‘white’. Finnish *maito* ‘milk’ is traced back to the Nostr. word for ‘tasty beverage’.

[19] *\*mälge* ‘breast, female breast’ > **Indo-Eur.** *\*melǵ-* ‘to milk’ > Greek ἄμελγω ‘I milk’ ||| Albanian *mjel*, *miel* id. ||| Latin *mulgē-re* ‘to milk’ ||| Middle Irish *bligim* ‘I milk’, perfect *do-om-malg* ||| Old High German *melchan*, German *melken*, Anglo-Saxon *melcan* ‘to milk’; noun: Gothic *miluks*, Old North *mjqlk*, Old High German *miluh* > German *Milch*, Anglo-Saxon *meolc*, *mioluc* > English *milk*; Germanic ⇨ Slavic *\*melko* ‘milk’ > Old Church Slavonic *mlěko*, Polish *mlęko*, Russian *моло'ко* ‘milk’ ||| Lithuanian *mélžu* / *mīlžti* ‘to milk’ | Slavic: Russian Church Slavonic *мълзу* / *млѣсти* ‘to milk’; Slavic *\*melzivo* ‘colostrum’ > Russian *мо'лозиво*, Slovak *mlézivo*, etc. ||| Tocharian: A *mālklune* ‘milking’ (nomen actionis), A *malke*, B *malk-wer* ‘milk’ || **Ham.-Sem.:** Semitic *\*√mlg* > Arabic *ملج* √ *mlǧ* ‘to suck’ ||| Egyptian *mn3* ‘female

breast, breast' ||| Cushitic: Somali māḷ- 'to milk' || **Uralic:** Finno-Ugric \*mäḷe 'breast' > Finnish mälvī, Estonian mälv 'breast of a bird\fowl' | Norwegian Lappish miel'gâ 'breast\chest of an animal' | Moksha-Mordvin mäḷkâ 'breast' | Highland Cheremis mel id. | Votyak mɜl id. ||| Ob-Ugric \*mēṽal 'breast' > proto-Vogul \*māṽal > Konda Vogul mǝṽl, mǝṽl; Vakh Ostyak mǝṽal, Teryugan Ostyak māṽṽṽ id. | Hungarian mell 'chest, breast, bosom' ||| Tundra Yukagir meṽut 'breast'.

[20] \*ḥalb∇ (or \*ḫalb∇) 'white' > **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. \*ḥa'lab- 'milk' > Biblical Hebrew כָּהֵן ḥā'lēḥ id., Middle Hebrew כָּהֵן ḥā'lēḥ id., 'white (of an egg)', Punic, Ugaritic, Official Aramaic ḥlb, Aramaic, Syriac ḥal(ə)'ḥ-ā, Arabic حَلَب ḥalab- 'milk', Ge'ez ḥalab 'sour milk'; derivatives: Arabic ḥalīb- 'milk', Ge'ez ḥalīb, Tigre, Tigray ḥalib 'milk, curds', Sem. \*ṣḥlb 'to milk' > Middle Hebrew, Aram., Syriac, Arabic ṣḥlb id.; West Sem. ḫ New Assyrian Akkadian ḫilpu 'milk' ||| South Cush.: Iraqw îlwā, ṛilwā ~ ṛulwā, Burunge, Alagwa ilba, Gorowa ulūwā, Asa liba 'milk' ||| East Cush.: Somali ḥalab-lā 'Melchsechter' (with the component lā 'having') ¶¶ The Sem. words \*ḥa'lab- and \*ḥa'līb- have a morphological structure typical of adjectives (the patterns \*Ca'CaC- and \*Ca'CīC-). This fact suggests an original meaning of adjective (most probably 'white') || **Indo-Eur.** \*h<sup>1</sup>alēbʰo- 'white' > Narrow Indo-Eur. \*albʰo- id. > Latin albus, Umbrian alf- id. ||| Gaulish albo- id. ||| Greek [Hesychius] acc. pl. ἄλφους id., ἄλφος 'whiteness, white leprosy' ||| Germanic \*alβ-it, \*alβ-ut- 'swan' > Old High German albiz, elbiz, Anglo-Saxon ælbītu, ielfetu, Old Norse elptr, qlpt ||| Slavic \*ǫlbqdb ~ \*ǣlbqdb 'swan' > Church Slavonic ЛЕБЕДЬ lebedь, Bulgarian лебед, Serbo-Croatian lăbūd, Russian 'лебедь, (dial.) 'лебядь, Polish łabędź, Czech labut' ||| ? Hittite alpas 'cloud' || **Drav.** \*all- 'clear' (of liquids) > Kurukh all-nā 'to become clear' (of liquids left undisturbed), Malto ále id. ◇ If Hittite alpas belongs here, the reconstruction is \*ḥalb∇, otherwise it is \*ḫalb∇.

[21] \*mayṣ̌∇ 'tasty beverage' > **Uralic:** Finno-Ugric \*mayṣ̌∇ 'sap of trees' > Finnish maito 'milk', Finnish (dial.) majto 'birch sap', Estonian (dial.) majt 'cream (Sahne)' | Votyak (dial.) mɜ́ 'tree honey, tree sap' ||

**Altaic:** Turkic \*bal ‘honey’ > Old Turkic bal, etc. || **Kartvelian** \*mž∇ > Laz mža ‘milk, buttermilk’ || **Hamito-Semitic:** East Cushitic: Sidamo mal(?) ‘sweet’, Saho, Eastern Afar malāb, Somali malab, Hadiya marabō, Sidamo malawō ‘honey’ || **Indo-European** \*mel-i-(t) / \*mel-n- ‘honey’ > Armenian meṛr || Greek μέλι (gen. μέλιτος) || Albanian mjal, mjalte (< melit-) || Latin mel, gen. mell-is (< \*mel-n-) || Old Irish mil (< \*meli), gen. mela || Gothic miliþ id. ||| Hittite milit- ‘honey’.

Through the looking-glass of the vocabulary we can see that the speakers of the Nostratic parent language were hunters and gatherers without agriculture and husbandry.

Did they know pottery? There are many Nostratic words that in the descendant languages are names of vessels. But what is conspicuous is that practically all of them denote baskets too. When used as verbs, they mean ‘to plait, wattle, wicker’. In addition, many of them are used to denote walls and fences (< ‘wickerwork’). These words reflect the epoch of plaiting vessels, which only later developed into earthenware.

[22] \*k̂ad∇ ‘to wicker, wattle’ (‘wall’, ‘building’) > **Kartvelian** \*k̂ed- / \*k̂d- ‘to build’ > Laz k̂id-, k̂od- ‘to build’, Georgian k̂ed- ‘corner-stone’, Megrelian k̂id- ‘to partition off with a wall’; Kartv. \*k̂ed] / \*k̂de]- ‘wall’ > Georgian k̂ed-el-, Laz k̂ida, k̂oda, Megrelian k̂ida(la), k̂ada(la) ~ k̂adela ‘wall’, Lashkhi Svan čwəd, čwād (pl. čwād-w-ār) id. || **Ham.-Sem.:** Semitic [1] (with a deglottalized \*k-) \*kadd- ‘jar, vessel for liquid’ > Hebrew כַּד k̂ad (pl. כַּדִּים k̂ad-d-īm), Ugaritic kaddu ‘jar’, Phoenician k̂d [\*k̂ad(d)] ‘pitcher, jar’ (→ Greek κῆδος ‘jar, vessel for water\wine’ → Latin cādus ‘jar’ and probably Megrelian k̂ot̂o ‘pot’), Jewish Aramaic כַּד k̂ad-d-ā ‘jar’, כַּדְנָא k̂ad-n-ā ‘jug’, Syriac kaddā-n-ā ‘small narrow-necked jug’, Arabic kadd- ‘mortar’; [2] \*k̂∇d∇r- ‘earthen pot’ > Middle Hebrew כַּדְרָא k̂āḏēr, כַּדְרָא k̂āḏērā, Jewish Aramaic כַּדְרָא k̂āḏēr-ā ~ כַּדְרָא k̂āḏēr-ā, Syriac ܟܕܪܐ k̂āḏēr-ā ‘(earthen) pot’, Arabic qidr- ‘chaudron; marmite en cuivre’, qadar-at- ‘petit flacon’, Mehri k̂ādar ‘pot’ ||| Egyptian k̂d ‘to make earthenware, to build, to shape, to create’, k̂d ‘pot’ ||| Omotic: Zayse keče ‘Zaun des Geheges’, Shinasha kaččà id., ‘Gehege für Rindvieh’ ||| West Chadic: Bole-Tangale: Bole kuḏa ‘pot’, Kirfi k̂wàtì ‘cooking pot’ ||| East Chadic: Dangla k̂ódà ‘a kind of small jar’ || **Indo-Eur.** \*kat- ‘wickerwork, wattle-fence’ >

Church Slavonic *кѡтъсь* ‘cage’, Macedonian Slavic *кѡтеc*, Bulgarian ‘*коце*’ ‘fishweir’, Serbo-Croatian *кѡтаc* id., ‘partition in a shed’, Old Polish *кѡciec* ‘enclosure for livestock\poultry’, Russian (dial.) *кѡ'тец* ‘fish-trap (made of cane\brushwood), *кѡт'цы* ‘fishweir, fishing net’, Ukrainian *кѡ'тець* ‘round fishweir’; Slavic \**кѡтъ*, \**кѡт-ьсь* ‘small building’ (> Old Czech *кѡт*, *кѡт* ‘stall, shop [in the market]’, Church Slavonic *кѡтъсь* ‘small room’, etc.) represents a contamination of the root in question and Nostr. \**Ḳotl̥ta* ‘fence, wall, hut, house’ || Anglo-Saxon *heden* ‘cooking vessels’ || Latin *catīnus* ‘dip dish\bowl’ ¶ IE \*-t- instead of the phonetically regular \*-dʰ- is due to the incompatibility law ruling out combinations of tenues and mediae aspiratae; in some cases contamination with \**Ḳotl̥ta* ‘mud-hut, house’ may have played a role as well || ? **Altaic**: Turkic \**kat-* ‘to weave, plait, twist (wool into thread)’ (shift of fortis < \*\**kʰat-*?) > Tofalar *qat-* ‘to weave, plait’, Tuva *qat-* ‘to add, weave, twist’ || **Dravidian** [1] \**kaṭṭ-*, \**kaṭ-* ‘to tie, build’ > Tamil, Telugu *kaṭṭu*, Malayalam *keṭṭuka*, Kota, Kolami, Gadba *kaṭ-*, Toda *koṭ-*, Kodagu *kaṭṭ-*, Tulu *kaṭṭuni*, Naikri, Parji *kaṭṭ-*, Chanda Naiki *kaṭ-/kaṭṭ-* id., Kannada *kaṭṭu* ‘to bind, tie, dam’, Gondi *kaṭṭā* ‘a dam in the river for catching fish’, Konda *kaṭa* ‘bundle (of hay)’, Kui *kāṭ-* ‘to fix, fasten’, Malto *gaṭa* ‘rope, cord’; [2] (derived from the prec.?) \**kaṭṭī* or \**kattī* ‘mat, mat-wall’ > Gondi *kaṭṭī* ‘palmleaf mat’, *katti*(:) ♂ *ketti* ‘mat’, Konda *kati* ‘wall’, Kuwi *katti* ‘mat-wall’ ♂ *kati* ‘wall’.

[23] \**Ḳoṭl̥c* ‘basket’ > **Ham.-Sem.**: Semitic \**kaṭas-* ‘vessel’ > Bibl. Hebrew *כֹּס* *kōs*, Samaritan Hebrew *kuwāś*, Ugaritic, Phoenician, Official Aramaic, Hatra *ks*, Phoenician *ḵs* (*ḵ* < \**k...*?), Jewish Aramaic *כָּסָא* *kā'sā*, Syriac *ܟܫܐ* *kāś* / ‘ܟܫܐ’ *kā's-ā*, Mandaic *kaśa* ‘drinking-bowl, cup’, Arabic *كأس* *kaʕs-* ‘[wine-]cup’, Akkadian *kāsu* ‘drinking-bowl’ || Egyptian *kc* ‘jug of metal’, Late Egyptian *k3* ‘vessel of silver’ || Berber \**kʷʷss-* ‘pot, drinking vessel’ > Twareg, Ghat *akus* (pl. *ikassan*), Ghadamsi *twkəs* (pl. *takassan*) ‘pot, drinking vessel’ || Central Cushitic: Khamir *kūskūśā* (pl. *kūskūś*) ‘Wasserkrug’; Agaw ⤴ Ethiosemitic: Ge'ez *kʷaskʷas* ‘pitcher, pot’, Tigray *kʷaskʷasti* ‘phial of glass or metal’, Amharic *kʷaskʷast* ‘water jug’ || **Kartvelian**: [1] Georgian *ḱvaçia* ‘small

earthen pot'; [2] Kartvelian \**ḱec-* 'earthen vessel' > Georgian *ḱeci*, Megrelian *ḱici* & *ḱeci* 'tönerne Backpfannen', Laz *ḱic-* 'pan of stone', Svan *ḱec* 'grand pot (creusé dans la terre)' || **Indo-European** \**kʷas-yo-*, \**kʷas-lo-* 'wicker basket, wickerwork', \**kʷēsyā* 'vessel': [1] \**kʷas-yo-*, \**kʷas-lo-* 'wicker basket' > Latin *quālum* (*quallus*) id. (< \**kʷaslom*, as can be seen from the diminutive *quāsillus*, -um) ||| Slavic \**košb* (< \**kʷasyos*) 'basket' > Old Church Slavonic, Old Russian *кошб* *кошб*, Bulgarian, Russian (dial.) *кош*, Serbo-Croatian *koš*, Slovene *koš*, Czech *koš*, Slovak *kôš*, Polish *kosz*, Ukrainian *киш* 'basket', proto-Slavic \**košelb*, \**košela*, \**košelb* 'wickerwork' > Low Lusatian *kóšela* 'wattle-fence', Polish *koszela*, Old Russian *košelb* 'wicker basket', Russian *кошель* id., 'small sack' |||| [2] IE \**kʷēsiā* 'vessel' > proto-Slavic \**čaša* 'cup' > Old Church Slavonic, Old Russian *чаша*, Russian *чаша* 'cup, bowl', Bulgarian *чаша* 'a glass', Serbo-Croatian *čāša* 'bowl', Slovene *čāša* 'cup, a glass', Polish *czasza*, Old Czech *čieše*, Czech *číše* 'bowl' | Prussian *kios* i 'Becher, Krug' ||| Old Indian *caṣakaḥ* 'drinking-cup' || **Uralic**: Finno-Ugric \**koća* 'basket (made of birch bark), vessel' > Finnish (dial.) *kosio*, *kalakosio* 'großer Fischkorb aus Birkenrinde' (*kala* 'fish'), Aunis Karelian *kojza*, *kozja* 'kleiner Rindenkorb mit Henkel aus Birkenrinde' | Norwegian Lapp *guōššē* 'Rindenkorb', Kola Lapp *kišš'e* ~ *kūšš'* ~ *kūōšš'* 'Tragekorb aus Birkenrinde' | Moksha-Mordvin *kuču*, *koču* 'spoon' || Ob-Ugric \**kōč-* > Northern and Eastern Vogul *sān-χos*, Konda Vogul *sānχōs* 'small basket of birch bark' (*sān* 'a vessel of birch bark'); Teryugan Ostyak *kōťi*, *kōťak* 'Trinkgefäß aus Birkenrinde', Vasyugan Ostyak *kōčak* 'Rindenschachtel von der Form einer Schöpfkelle, die in die Wiege gestellt wird' || **Altaic**: Tungusic \**ḱač-u-ḱan* 'kettle, basket' > Orochi *ḱačuan*, Ulcha *ḱačoa(n-)*, Orok *ḱačuyā(n-)*, Nanay *ḱačōḱā* 'kettle', Kur-Urmi Nanay *ḱačōḱōā* ~ *ḱačā* id., 'basket of birch bark', Classical Manchu *ḱacuḱan mucen* 'three-legged kettle' || **Dravidian** \**ku|oḱ-a-* (+ suffix) 'potter' > Tamil *kuyam* (/kucam- as the first member of compound words) 'potter caste', *kuyavan* ~ *kucavan* 'potter', Malayalam *kuyavan* ~ *kuśavan* id., Tamil f. *kuyatti* ~ *kucatti*, Malayalam f. *kuyatti* 'potter (woman)', Tamil *kō* 'potter', Kannada *kōva*, *kuvara*, Tulu *kisave* id.

[24] \***p|pat'a'** 'basket, box' > **Hamito-Semitic**: Semitic \*<sup>o</sup>√ptn (?\*pa'tan-) > Akkadian pitnu 'box' || **Indo-European** \*pod- > Narrow IE \*pod- 'box, vessel, pot' > ? Old Indian palla 'container for corn' || Old High German vazz 'box, container', Old Saxon, Old Norse fæt 'vessel', Anglo-Saxon fæt 'vessel, cup, pot' || Lithuanian púodas, Latvian pôds 'pot' || Hittite pattar/n-, paddur 'basket', Lycian πατάρα 'basket, box' || **Uralic**: Finno-Ugric \*pata 'cauldron, pot' > Finnish pata (gen. padan), Estonian pada 'kettle, cooking-pot' | Norw. Lapp batte / -d- 'pot, cauldron' | Highland Cheremis pat, East. Cheremis pat, pot 'pot' || Ob-Ugric \*pūt 'cauldron' > Vogul pōt, pūt, put, Ostyak: put, pūt, pūt | Hungarian fazék 'cooking-pot' || **Dravidian** \*pata|∇ 'pot' > Tamil patalai 'large-mouthed pot', Toda paṭṭu 'large, broad-mouthed clay pot', Gonda, Malto patli 'cooking-pot'.

As we can see, according to the lexical data, the speakers of the Nostratic languages had no agriculture, no husbandry, no pottery. Hence, they did not belong to the Neolithic epoch.

### 3.2.1. Mesolithic? Bow, arrows, fishing net?

Shall we refer the Nostratic parent language to the Mesolithic or a still earlier epoch? It must be confessed that I do not know the answer. But let us try to look for information in the language.

From popular literature on archæology (e.g. *Encyclopædia Britannica* XV [1971], 202) I have understood that *bow* and *arrows* are a Mesolithic achievement. They say also that in Mesolithic times the *fishing net* was invented. I do not know if this is true. If not, I shall appreciate correction. In any case, we may try to apply the criteria of bow, arrows and fishing net and see whether the Nostratic language existed after or before the invention of these artefacts.

In Nostratic there are three words that mean 'bow' in descendant languages. But in analyzing them we find that two of them (\*|ṽaʀꞤ'u and \*ṽaṇꞤṽ) have also the meaning of 'sinew'. The semantic prehistory is 'sinew' > 'string' > 'bow-string' > 'shooting bow'. In the third word (\*|ṇꞤa) the meaning 'shooting bow' goes back to the verbal idea of 'bending' (just as in the English word *bow*).

[25] \*ʕ|ʕaʕʕu' 'sinew' > **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem.: Arabic ʕirq- 'root, sinew' || **Indo-European** \*h<sub>2</sub>erku- > \*arku- 'bow; net' > Latin arcus id. || Germanic \*arh<sup>w</sup>ō > Gothic arhazna (a derived word), Old Norse qr (gen. qrvār), Anglo-Saxon earh 'arrow', English arrow || Greek ἄρκυς, -υος 'net' || **Altaic:** Turkic \*arka- > Osman arqa- 'an den Sattelriemen festbinden', Chaghatay arqa- 'den Faden einschließen', Tuva arɣɨ- 'to knit, plait, weave', Khakas arɣa- 'to embroider in satin-stitch'; Turkic \*arkān 'lasso, thick rope' > Chaghatay, Karaite arqan, Türkmen arqān 'lasso, thick rope', Qarachay-Balqar, Volga Tatar arqan, Uzbek arqon, Turkish argan 'thick rope, cable', Qırghız, Altay arqan 'rope made of hair', Crimea Tatar, Karaite, Bashqurt arqan 'thick rope, cable', Qazaq arqan 'thick rope, rope of horse hair'; Turkic ⇨ Russian ар'кан 'lasso' ¶ Nostr. \*ʕ > Turkic \*r in the preconsonantic position (Helimski's law) ||| Mongolic: Class. Mong. argamzi, Halha-Mong. аргамж, Buryat аргамжа, Kalmuck арһмж 'rope, tether', Class. Oirat arɣamzi 'rope, line, halter, hawser, bridle', Class. Mong. argamzi-, Halha аргамжи-(х) 'to tie, fasten with a rope', Class. Oirat arɣala- 'to fasten, tether'; Mongolian ⇨ Tofalar argamzi, Tuva аргамчы 'lasso, leather rope', Khakas arɣamɣɨ, Altay армакчы 'lasso, rope', Qırghız аргамжы 'rope (made of hair)' || **Drav.** \*eʔɨt- > Kurukh eʔet<sup>h</sup> 'long-bow', Malto eʔtu 'a bow', eʔtyo 'archer'.

[26] \*yānɣɨɨ 'sinew, tendon', 'bow (weapon)' > **Ham.-Sem.:** Egyptian ʕwn.t 'a kind of bow (weapon)' || **Uralic:** there are two derived words: 1. \*yāntä 'sinew, tendon' > Finnish jänne (gen. jänteēn) 'tendon, sinew, cord' | Skolt Lapp (Notozero) yēäddä-pes'sä 'loaded gun' (pes'sä is 'gun') | Highland Cheremis yābān, Eastern Cheremis yābān 'bow-string', Lowland Cheremis йыдан yā'bān 'шерстобойная струна' || Ob-Ugric \*yE:ntəx 'bow-string' > Vogul \*yāntəx > Konda Vogul yantəx & yjntəx, Sosva Vogul yāntew; proto-Ostyak \*yōntəy > Vakh Ostyak yōntəy, etc. | Old Hungarian یدeg 'sinew, bow-string', Hungarian یدeg 'nerve' ||| Samoyedic \*yentə 'bow-string' > Tundra Nenets ен, Obdorsk dial. yēn, Forest Nenets yien, Nganasan yenti, Somatu Enets yēddi, Taz Sölqup č'i'nti, Tim Sölqup ɕi'n'd, Kamassian nenš id. ||| 2. \*yōŋse ~ \*yōŋkse 'bow (weapon)' > Finnish jousi, joutsi 'bow' | proto-Lapp \*yōksə 'bow' > Southern Lapp juokse,



Lule-Lapp  $j\text{uoksa}$ , Kola (Kildin) Lapp  $j\ddot{u}\ddot{x}:s$  | proto-Mordvin  $*y\text{on}gaks$  ‘bow’ > Erzya & Moksha Mordvin  $y\text{on}ks$  id., (dial.)  $y\text{ons}$  ‘ручная шерсточесалка, лучок’ | proto-Cheremis  $y\text{on}a\check{z}$  ‘bow (weapon)’ > Highland Cheremis  $y\text{on}e\check{z}$ , Eastern Cheremis  $y\text{on}e\check{z}$   $\neq$   $y\text{on}\ddot{u}\check{z}$  || Ob-Ugric  $*y\ddot{o}\check{x}\text{a}\theta$  ‘bow’ > proto-Vogul  $*y\ddot{a}\check{x}\text{at}$  > Pelimka Vogul  $y\ddot{a}\check{x}\text{t}$ , Low Lozva Vogul  $y\check{e}\check{x}\text{t}$ ; proto-Ostyak  $*y\text{o}\check{y}\text{a}\check{t}$  > Vakh Ostyak  $y\text{o}\check{y}\text{a}\check{t}$  id., etc. ||| Samoyedic  $*\text{int}\ddot{t}$  ‘bow (weapon)’ > Tundra & Forest Nenets  $\eta\text{in}^*$ , Nganasan  $\acute{d}\text{int}\ddot{a}$ , En  $\text{eddo}$  id., Taz  $\text{S}\ddot{o}lq\text{up}$   $\text{int}\ddot{t}$  id.,  $\text{unt}\ddot{t}$  ‘arc’,  $q\ddot{o}n$   $\text{unt}\ddot{t}$  ‘rainbow’, Chaya  $\text{S}\ddot{o}lq\text{up}$   $y\text{n}\check{z}\text{e}$  ‘bow’, Kamassian  $\text{t}\ddot{n}\text{a}$ ,  $\text{j}\ddot{t}\text{n}\text{a}$  id. || **A:** Turkic  $*j\ddot{a}\acute{n}$  ‘bow’ (>  $*j\ddot{a}y \sim *j\ddot{a}$ ) > Bashqurt  $j\text{an}$ , Shor  $n\text{an}$ , Old Turkic  $j\ddot{a}$ , Türkmen  $j\ddot{a}y$ , Turkish  $y\ddot{a}y$ , Azeri, Gagauz, Karaite, Nogay  $j\text{ay}$ , Uzbek  $j\text{ay}$ , Qazaq  $\check{z}\text{ay}$ , Qırghız  $\check{z}\ddot{a}$ , Altay  $j\ddot{a}$ , Yakut  $s\ddot{a}$  id., Chuvash  $\acute{s}\text{u}$  in  $uk\text{-}\acute{s}\text{u}$  ‘шерстобитный лук’  $\diamond$  Ural.  $*\text{-t}\ddot{a}$  and  $*\text{-k}\text{se}$  probably go back to suffixes of derivation. The vowel  $*\ddot{a}$  in the first syllable of Ural.  $*y\ddot{a}nte$  is due to assimilation (vowel harmony). The labialization of the first vowel in  $*y\text{on}(k)\text{se}$  is obscure.

[27] **\* $\text{lon}q\text{a}$**  ‘to bend’ > **Hamito-Semitic:** Chadic: West Chadic: Hausa  $\text{l}\ddot{a}nq\text{w}\ddot{a}\text{-s}\ddot{a}$  v. tr. ‘bend’ ||| Egyptian  $r\omega\check{z}$  ‘bow-string; Sehne, Flechse des Körpers; Sandalenriemen, Band am Türverschuß’ ||| **Indo-European:** NaIE  $*\text{lenk-}$  ‘to bend’,  $*\text{lonk}\text{-s}$  ‘bow’ > Baltic: ( $*\text{lenk-}$  >) Lithuanian  $\text{lenki}\ddot{u}$  (inf.  $\text{le}\check{n}\check{k}\text{ti}$ ) ‘to bend, crook, curve; bow’; ( $*\text{lonk}\text{-s}$  >) Lithuanian  $\text{lankas}$  ‘shaft-bow; hoop’, Latvian  $\text{l}\ddot{u}oks$  ‘Krummholz, Radfelge’, Prussian  $\text{lonki}$  ‘Steg’; Lithuanian  $\text{linki}\ddot{u}$  (inf.  $\text{link}\acute{e}\text{ti}$ ) ‘sich neigen zu, wünschen’, Latvian  $\text{l}\ddot{i}kt$  v. intr. ‘bend’,  $\text{liks}$  ‘crooked’; Prussian  $\text{lunkis}$  ‘corner’ | (IE  $*\text{lenk-}$  >) Slavic  $*\text{lek-}$  ‘to bend’ > Church Slavonic  $\text{л}\ddot{e}k\text{-}q$  /  $\text{л}\ddot{a}\check{\psi}\text{H}$   $\text{le}\check{s}\text{ti}$  ‘to bend’, Russian (dial.)  $\text{л}\ddot{y}k\text{ий}$  ‘crooked, curve’; (IE  $*\text{lonk}\text{-s}$  >) Slavic  $*\text{loqk}\text{-}$  ‘bow’ > Old Church Slavonic  $\text{л}\ddot{q}k\text{-}$ , Russian  $\text{лук}$ , etc. ||| Germanic  $*\text{lan}q\text{-}$  > Anglo-Saxon  $*\text{l}\ddot{o}h\text{a}le$  [pl.  $\text{l}\ddot{o}(\text{a})n$  ‘in  $\text{sceaft-l}\ddot{o}(\text{a})n$  ‘shaft-straps (to help in throwing spear)’;  $\text{sce}\acute{a}\text{ft}$  means ‘shaft of spear\arrow’], Old Norse  $\text{le}ng\text{j}\ddot{a}$  ‘strap (Riemen, Streifen)’, Danish  $\text{l}\ddot{a}nge$  ‘Seilstrippe’ ||| **Uralic**  $*\text{la}^{\text{h}}n\text{ka-}$  ( $\sim *l\text{on}q\text{ka-}$ ) ‘dull arrow’ > Pelimka Vogul  $\text{la}\check{x}$  (pl.  $\text{la}\check{n}k\text{at}$ ) id.; Teryugan Ostyak  $\text{l}\ddot{a}\check{n}k$ , Demyanka Ostyak  $\text{l}\ddot{e}\check{n}k$  id. ||| Samoyedic: Tundra Nenets  $\text{локы}$   $\neq$   $\text{лукы}$  ‘dull arrow (Klumpffeil)’, Forest Nenets  $\text{lu}^{\text{h}}k\text{-}\check{t}$  ‘arrow’, Bay Enets  $\text{loku}$  ‘round-pointed arrow, Klumpffeil’

||| Tundra & Kolima Yukagir ʔokiʔ ‘arrow’ || **A:** Tungusic \*ʔuŋkE- ‘to bow’  
> Ewenki ʔuŋkin- ‘to bow the head’, Lamut nŋŋka- id., ‘to bow down’.

It is clear that ‘bow’ is not the most ancient meaning of these roots. The problems is only *when* these semantic changes (‘sinew’ > ‘bow, to bend’ > ‘a shooting bow’) took place. If these semantic changes occurred still in proto-Nostratic, then that language (at least, Late proto-Nostratic) existed during the appearance of shooting bows. But if the changes belong to the separate history of the daughter languages (which cannot be ruled out), the Nostratic parent language existed before the invention of shooting bows. In other words, linguistic palaeontology fails to give us a key for chronology.

A similar story is with words for ‘arrow’. The Nostr. word \*nŋŋʔʔE denotes arrows in Uralic and Altaic (Tungusic). But it also has the meaning of ‘sinew’, so that we may reconstruct the semantic history like that: ‘sinew’ > ‘bow-string’ > ‘shooting bow’ > ‘arrow’. The Nostratic word \*pʔpʔeʃqE (or \*pʔpʔeqʃE) denotes arrows in Chadic and Finno-Ugric, but in Semitic it has the meaning of ‘spear’, so that the underlying semantic change is ‘spear’ > ‘arrow’. Here again we face the problem of chronologizing the changes. We do not know if the semantic changes took place within the history of proto-Nostratic or later, in the separate history of the daughter languages.

[28] \*nŋŋʔʔE (or \*nŋŋʔʔE) ‘sinew’, ‘to tie together’ > **Hamito-Semitic:**  
Semitic: [1] \*nŋŋʔʔE- ‘sinew’, ‘tie’ (noun) > Arabic nŋŋʔʔ- ‘nerf, boyau, morceau de cuir avec lequel on entoure l’arc au haut de la cambrure ou sur les côtés; chaussure, soulier, sabot’, Biblical Hebrew נַנְיָל nŋŋʔʔ ‘a sandal’, Ugaritic nŋŋʔ ‘shoe, sandal’, Syriac nŋŋʔʔ-ā ‘horse-shoe’, Mandaic nŋŋʔ ‘shoes, sandals’, Mehri nŋŋʔʔ, Eastern Jibbali nŋŋʔ ‘sandals’, Soqotri nŋŋʔ ‘footwear’; [2] \*nŋŋʔ ‘to tie’ > Bibl. Hebrew nŋŋʔ ‘to lock (a door by straps), close, tie sandals on one’s foot’, Ugaritic nŋŋʔ ‘binden, schließen’, Jewish Aramaic nŋŋʔ ‘to tie a shoe’, Mandaic nŋŋʔ ‘to shoe a horse, bind up, tie’, Arabic nŋŋʔ ‘to give shoes to smb.’, Ge’ez (derived noun) nŋŋʔʔ ‘widow whom the late husband’s brother marries by levirate’ (lit. ‘a tied one [f.]’)  
|| **Uralic** \*nŋŋʔE ‘arrow’ > Finnish nŋŋʔ ‘arrow’, Estonian nŋŋʔ ‘arrow, bow’ | proto-Lappish \*nŋŋʔ ‘arrow’ > Norwegian Lapp nŋŋʔ ‘arrow’ | Erzya & Moksha Mordvin nŋŋʔ id. | Cheremis nŋŋʔ ‘arrowhead made of bone’ | Permian \*nŋŋʔ / \*nŋŋʔ- ‘arrow’ > Ziryene nŋŋʔ / nŋŋʔ-, Votyak nŋŋʔ || proto-Ob-Ugric \*nŋŋʔ ‘arrow’ > proto-Vogul \*nŋŋʔ > Vogul nŋŋʔ, nŋŋʔ, nŋŋʔ; proto-Ostyak \*nŋŋʔ >

Vakh Ostyak  $\acute{n}al$  | Hungarian  $nyál$  ||| Samoyedic  $*\acute{n}zay$  > Tundra Nenets  $-'\acute{n}i$  in  $\tau y\acute{n}i$   $t\acute{u}\acute{n}'\acute{n}i$  'gun' (lit. 'fire arrow'), Chaya Sölqap  $-'\acute{n}\acute{t}'$  in  $q'\acute{e}s'\acute{a}\acute{n}\acute{t}'$  'arrow for shooting at birds', Kamasiian  $'\acute{n}\acute{a}$  'arrow, bullet' |||| another line of semantic change: Finno-Ugric  $*\acute{n}ol\triangledown$  (or  $*\acute{n}al\triangledown$ ) 'to tie together' > Hungarian  $nyaláb$  'bundle' | proto-Ostyak  $*\acute{n}ula$  'together' > Vakh Ostyak  $\acute{n}ula$  || ? **Altaic**: Tungusic  $*\acute{n}ul\acute{e}$  (or  $*yul\acute{e}$ ) > Ewenki  $\acute{n}ulga \sim ju\acute{l}ga \sim yulga$  'arrow, iron arrowhead'.

[29]  $*p|p\acute{e}šqE \sim *p|p\acute{e}qšE$  'spear' > **Ham.-Sem.**: Sem.  $*p\triangledown š|\theta\chi-$  > Akkadian  $paš\chi u$  'hunting spear' ('ein Jagdspieß') ||| West Chadic  $*pasuq-$  'arrow' > Karekare  $pasku$ , Pero  $púžùk$ , Bole  $fɔsɔ$ , Jimi  $pussko$  'arrow' || **Uralic**:  $*pekše$  'arrow (with a dull arrowhead)' > Lowland Cheremis  $pikš$  'arrow, bow', Highland Cheremis  $pikš$  'arrow' | Votyak  $puk+č$  'bow; arrow-fish' ||| Ob-Ugric: Vakh Ostyak  $pö\psi$  'arrow with a dull wooden arrowhead, arrow for hunting squirrels without spoiling their skin' | Lower Konda Vogul  $li\acute{x}anp\acute{x}tn\acute{e}p-pi\acute{w}at$  'Keil mit stumpfer Spitze für die Eichhörnchenjagd' ( $li\acute{x}an$  'squirrel',  $p\acute{x}t-$  'to shoot').

There is also a word ( $*\acute{t}ul\acute{e}|\acute{g}'\triangledown$ ) that seems to mean 'fishing net'. It actually means 'fishing net, to cast a fishing net' in several descendant languages. But its most ancient meaning is 'veil, to spread like a veil/net'.

[30]  $*\acute{t}ul\acute{e}|\acute{g}'\triangledown$  'to spread like a veil/net, cover with a veil/net, catch with a net' > **Hamito-Semitic**: Semitic  $*\acute{t}ul\acute{e}|\acute{g}'$  > Ge'ez  $\text{ʾan-}t\acute{o}l\acute{e}sa$  'to spread, stretch, spread like a veil, veil, cover with a veil', Tigre  $\text{ʾan-}t\acute{o}l\acute{e}sa$  'to spread, stretch out' (Ge'ez, Tigre  $\leftarrow$  Cushitic?) ||| Egyptian  $\text{ʾ}3$  'to catch (fish)' or sim. ( $< *zup\acute{e}\triangledown < *dju\acute{e}\triangledown < *\acute{t}ul\acute{g}\triangledown$ ) || **Kartvelian**  $*t\chi ewl-$  'to fish by net' > Old Georgian  $t\chi ewl-$ , Georgian  $t\chi evl-$  id., Svan  $t\chi \acute{e}l-$  'to look for, hunt' || **Uralic**: Finno-Ugric  $*tul\acute{k}\triangledown$  'seine, drag-net' > Ziryene  $t\acute{t}l- \sim t\acute{t}v-$  id. ||| Ob-Ugric  $*t\acute{o}l\acute{e}š \sim *t\acute{o}š\acute{e}l$  id. > proto-Vogul  $*t\acute{o}l\acute{e}š$  > Northern Vogul  $t\acute{o}l\acute{e}š$ , proto-Ostyak  $*t\acute{o}š\acute{e}l$  > Kazim Ostyak  $t\acute{o}š\acute{e}l$  || **Altaic**  $*t'\acute{u}lE-$  > Turkic  $*t'\acute{u}l\acute{a}-$  'to hobble (a horse, etc.)' > Old Turkic  $tuš\acute{a}-$ , Qazaq  $\text{түса-}$   $t\acute{u}sa-$ , Qırgız  $tuš\acute{a}-$ , Tuva  $t\acute{u}ž\acute{a}-$ , Tofalar  $t\acute{u}š\acute{a}-$  id.;  $\rightarrow$  Turkic  $*t'\acute{u}l\acute{a}k$  'hobble' > Old Turkic  $tuš\acute{a}š$ , Türkmen  $duš\acute{a}q$ , Shamakhı Azeri  $tuš\acute{a}x$ , Qazaq  $\text{түсау}$   $t\acute{u}sa\acute{w}$ , Tuva  $t\acute{u}ž\acute{a}š$ , Tofalar  $t\acute{u}š\acute{a}š$ , Chuvash  $\text{тӳӳӳ тӳӳ тӳӳ}$  id., Qırgız  $tuš\acute{o}$  id.,

‘fetters’, Yakut *tuhax* ‘loop, snare, chain, fetters’ ¶ Türkmen, Tuva and Tofalar data suggest Turkic *\*t̥-*, while Azeri *tuşax* suggests *\*t̥-* ||| Tungusic *\*tule-* ‘to cast (a fishing net), install (a self-shooting bow, a trap, a snare)’ > Orochi, Ude, Ulcha, Orok, Nanay, Ewenki, Negidal *tułɜ-*, Lamut *tuł-*, Manchu *tułe-* id., Orok *tułɜgdɜ* ‘fishing net’, *tułɜči-* ‘to fish with a net’ || ? **Dravidian** *\*tułɜ* ‘weaver’ > Parji *tula* id.

Thus, in the Nostratic vocabulary we do not find confirmation of the idea that proto-Nostratic was spoken by people having bows, arrows and fishing-nets. If bow, arrows and fishing-net are indeed Mesolithic achievements, there is no proof that the proto-Nostratic culture was Mesolithic.

#### 4. Hunter-gatherers

##### 4.1. Hunting

The life of hunters is reflected in some Nostratic lexemes: the hunter *follows the tracks* (*\*goki*, *\*d̥Eɾɿɿ|χSɜ*), casts a *spear* (*\*šubyɜ*, *\*p̥pešqE* ~ *\*p̥peqšE* [cf. above [29]], tries to *hit the target* (*\*t̥apɜ*) and not to *miss the aim* (*\*menɿɜ*).

[31] **\*goki** ‘track’ (‘way’), ‘to follow the track’ > **Hamito-Semitic**: Cushitic *\*gʷɜg|k-* > Agaw *\*gūk-* > Bilin *gūg-* (pl. *gūkək*), Hamta *gʷug* ‘way’ ||| Beja *gīg-* ‘to go’ ||| East Cushitic: Hadiya *gōgo* ‘road’, Kambatta *goggo* ‘way’ ||| Omotic: Zayse *goge* ‘road’, Shako *kōku*, Maji *kok*, Ari *gōgí* ‘road, path’ (loans from East Cushitic?) ||| Chadic *\*√gk* ‘path’ > West Chadic: Dera *gókó*, Bole *gɔgɔ*, Pero *kókòž* ‘road’ || **Uralic** *\*koke* ‘to examine (a trap, snare), search’ (→ ‘find’) > Finnish *koke-* ‘to examine (a trap, snare), try’ | Skolt Lapp *kuoʔkã-* ‘to examine (the fish net)’ ||| Samoyedic *\*ko-* ‘to see, find’ > Enets *koabo* ~ *kuabo* ‘I look for, I find’, Tundra Nenets *xō-ś*, Forest Nenets *kō-ś* ‘to find’, Taz Sölqup *qo-qo* ‘to find, sea, discover’, Mator *коямъ* ‘I find’ || **Altaic**: Turkic *\*Kog(ɜ)-* ‘to follow the track, hunt’ > Old Turkic *qov-* ‘to follow, pursue, chase’, Middle Turkic [13th c.] *qov-* ‘to hunt’, Chaghatay *qaw-*, *quɣ-* ‘to pursue, drive away’, Tuba, Quu-Kizhi *qoɣ-* ‘to pursue’, Khakas *χoɣ-* ‘to follow, pursue smbd.’, Osman *qoɣ-* ~ *qov-* ‘to pursue’, Turkish *kov-*, Türkmen *qov-* ‘to chase, pursue’ ||| Chuvash *xɔv-* ~ *xu-* ‘to chase, pursue, follow’.

[32] \*<sup>r</sup>d'EṣṢ or \*<sup>r</sup>d'Eṣ|χSṢ 'to follow the tracks' > **Ham.-Sem.:** ? Sem. \*✓dṣṣ > Arabic dāṣ- 'trace, track, beaten road' ||| Chadic: Ngizim tása v. 'find' || **Kartv.:** either [1] Kartv. \*<sup>o</sup>ṣṣ- > Georgian ṣi- (pres. 3eṣ-) 'search, look for', or [2] Kartv. \*<sup>o</sup>ṣṣ-/ \*<sup>o</sup>ṣṣeχ- > Georgian ṣṣ(ṣ)- / 3eχ-: mi-ṣṣ(ṣ)-/3eχ- 'etw. (z. B. Ideal) verfolgen', ḡa-ṣṣ(ṣ)-/3eχ- 'let smbd. go first, follow smbd.' || **Indo-Eur.** \*dēs- / (?) \*des- v. 'find, to track (nachspüren)' > Greek δῆω 'I shall find', Greek [Hesychius] ἔδηνεν· εἶπεν (he) found' ||| Albanian ndesh 'antreffen', ndieh (< \*des-skō) 'befinde mich' ||| Old Church Slavonic ΔΕΣΩ dešq / ΔΕCHTH desiti v. 'find', Church Slavonic ΔOCHTH dositi, OYΔOCHTH uDOSiti 'to find, meet' (unless from \*deḱ-) || **Altaic:** Mongolic \*des > Class. Mong., Halha des 'following, next, subsequent, second', desle- v. 'be next, follow' ◇ If the Georgian cognate is ṣi-/3eṣ-, the Nostr. etymon is \*<sup>r</sup>d'EṣṢ, while if it is ṣṣ(ṣ)-/3eχ-, the Nostr. word is to be reconstructed as \*<sup>r</sup>d'Eṣ|χSṢ. The Arabic cognate is valid only if the verb ✓dṣ 'to tread upon' is derived from the noun and not vice versa.

[33] \*šubyṢ 'spike, spear, to pierce' > **Hamito-Semitic:** Sem.: Arabic ✓sbb 'to pierce' || **Kartv.:** Georgian šub-i 'spear' || **Uralic:** Finno-Ugric \*šuye (< \*\*✓šuwye) 'spear, bear-spear, spike (of a weapon)' > Finnish (dial.) hui, huitti 'spool; (round) tip, summit', Estonian hui 'netting-needle; spool (for weaving)' || Swedish Lapp suoj 'instrumentum quo retia texuntur', Pite Lapp 'suoyya 'netting-needle' || Permian \*šū > Ziryene шы šī 'spear, bar-spear, bayonet', Votyak шн ši 'sting, spike, bayonet' || ? **Altaic:** Mongolic \*soyuga > Class. Mongolian soyuga, Halha coeo 'eye-tooth, tusk, fang, horn needle, awl' ||| Manchu suyfun 'awl'.

[34] \*ṭapṢ 'to hit (the target)' ('to succeed, find, find an answer, identify, recognize') > **Indo-Eur.** \*top- 'wohin gelangen, auf etwas treffen; Ort, wo man hingelangt oder hin will' > Greek τόπος 'place', τοπάτω 'to aim at, guess' ||| ? Anglo-Saxon ȝafian 'to consent to, permit, tolerate' ||| Lithuanian tãp-ti to become', Latvian tapt id., pa-tapt 'hingelangen, wozu kommen können' || **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. \*✓ṭbb > Syriac ✓ṭbb (perfect ṭab) 'to be informed, know, make inquiry', Arabic ṭabb- 'habile, savant,

versé dans une science; circonspect', ✓ṭbb: perfect (< adj. of state) ṭabba 'était habile, savant', Soqotri ṭəb 'he believed, knew', Ge'ez ✓ṭbb 'to be wise, prudent, sage' and Sabaic (derived verb) ṭbb 'to teach, proclaim' || **Uralic:** Finno-Ugric \*tap(p)∇- 'to find, succeed, fit' > Finnish *tapaan* / *tavata* 'to find, meet, come across' | Votyak *tupa-* 'to come to an agreement (after bargaining), to come to an understanding (with smb.); to fit' || **Altaic** \*t'ap∇ 'to hit the target, find' > Turkic \*t'ap- 'to find, hit the target, guess' > Old Turkic *tap-*, Middle Turkic [Ibn-Muhanna] *dap-* 'to find, learn', Yakut *tap-* 'to hit the target', Türkmen, Qumuq *tap-* 'to find', Azeri *tap-* 'to find, guess', Chuvash *tup-* 'to find, detect', *tupɔ* 'solution of the riddle' || pre-proto-Mongolic \*taɕa- > proto-Mongolic \*taɣa- 'to guess' > Dungxiang *taɣa-*, Class. Mongolian *taga-*, Halha *tā-* 'to guess, solve the riddle', Kalmuck *tā-* 'to tell the fortune, suppose', Ordos, Monguor *t'ā-* 'diviner, conjecturer'; Mongolic ⇨ Ewenki *tāɣ-*, Lamut *tā-* 'to recognize\identify (smbd.), guess', Negidal *tak-*, Ulcha, Nanay *taqō-* 'to recognize\identify', Class. Manchu *taqa-* '(er)kennen, können', Sibe Manchu *taqa-ma* 'to identify' || **Drav.** \*tāppə 'appointed time, proper time' > Tamil *tāppu* 'expected moment, appointed time, convenience', Malayalam *tāppu* 'proper time, opportunity', Toda *top* 'time, chance'.

[35] **\*ment**∇ 'to miss one's aim' (→ 'to pass by') > **Uralic:** Finno-Ugric \*mentä- 'to miss one's mark, be mistaken' > proto-Lappish \*mentē- id. > Lule Lappish *mieddē-* ~ *mäddē-* 'fehlen, Fehler machen, fehlgreifen, sich irren', Norwegian Lappiah *mæd'det* 'to miss (not hit), mistake (one's way)', Kildin Lappish *mêânda* 'weg, fort' (< \*'vorbei') || Vakh Ostyak *mintayta-* 'to miss one's aim (in shooting)'; Middle Lozva Vogul *mänt* ~ *mäntä* ~ *mänti*, Konda Vogul *mänt* ~ *mēnt*, Pelimka Vogul *mäntl* 'längs, entlang', Vogul *âm mäntsäm* 'passing past me' ('прохождение мимо меня') || **Indo-Eur.** \*ment- '(in) vain; liar, deceit' > Greek *μάτην* 'in vain, fruitlessly', *μῆτις* 'fault' || Latin *mentior* / *mentīri* 'to tell a lie', *mentītus* 'false' || Old Prussian *mēntimai* 'wir lügen', *epmēntimai* 'wir belügen' || ? **Ham.-Sem.:** West Chadic \*mant- 'to forget' > Hausa *māncē* / *māntā*, Gwandara *mōči* | Goemay *men*, Montol *mun*,

Sura mander | Bole mont-, Karekare mantan, Bele mòntú, Kirfi mùnd-, Gera mōnè- | Miya man- id.

The game of the hunters: different kinds of *antelope and deer* (\*gurHa, \*ḡEḡi, \*boča, \*ḡoʃu' [cf. above [5]], *bovines* (\*buḲa, \*čoma, \*č'a'wḡḡRḡ [or \*čURḡ]), *wild goats and sheep* (\*ḡḡgaḡV, \*bukEḡḡḡ, \*diga, \*k'a'čḡ), *wild boars* (\*ḡḡḡḡḡḡ) Among terms of hunting terminology we find names for *herds* (\*ḡoḲü), special names for *lambs and kids* (\*ḡadi). In addition to ungulates — their main source of meat, they paid attention to *fur-bearing animals* (\*bUḡḡḡ), among them *squirrels* (\*ḡḡUrḡ[-ba]) and *martens* (\*ḡunḡḡḡḡ).

[36] \*gurHa 'antelope, male antelope' > **Ham.-Sem.:** Cushitic \*ḡwḡḡḡ' > Beja ḡarḡḡa 'antelope' || East Cushitic: Sidamo ḡuruḡm-iččō (pl. ḡuruḡme) 'antelope, gazelle, roe' || South Cush.: Iraqw ḡwarêḡi, Gorowa ḡweraḡahi, Alagwa ḡweraḡai, ḡwarehe 'dik-dik antelope', Burunge ḡwereha 'decula antelope' || Omotic: Wolayta, Dawro ḡārā 'decula antelope' || West Chadic: Goemay žirri ~ žirri 'roe antelope', Ngizim ḡḡrəḡḡà '(a kind of) antelope' || Central Chadic: Buduma ḡḡḡí, Logone ḡarḡa 'antelope' || **Altaic:** Mongolic \*ḡūran 'antelope, male roebuck' > Middle Mongolian ḡuran '(a kind of) 'hornless antelope', Class. Mong. ḡura(n) 'antelope', Halha-Mong. ḡur 'male deer', Buryat ḡḡḡḡḡ 'wild goat, elk', Dörböt Oirat ḡurun, Kalmuck ḡuru 'male roe-deer; saygak antelope'; Mongolian ḡ > Southern Ewenki ḡūran 'wild goat'; the length of the Mongolic \*u is suggested by the loanword in Ewenki || Korean: Middle Kor. kōrání, New Korean koranni, Korean (Northern dialects) korani 'deer'.

[37] \*ḡEḡi 'deer' > **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. \*ḡayl- 'ram' > Biblical Hebrew אֵיִל 'ayil (pl. אֵיִלִּים ḡēlīm), Ugaritic ḡl (= \*ḡēl-u) 'ram', ? Akkadian (ḡ)āḡ-u id., Jewish Aramaic אֵיִלִּי ḡayl-ā 'Schiffsbock'; the ancient meaning 'deer' has been preserved in the derived Sem. noun \*ḡayḡal- 'deer, mountain goat' > Biblical Hebrew ḡayḡāl 'Cervus capreolus', Ugaritic ḡḡl, Jewish Aramaic אֵיִלִּי ḡayḡāl-ā, אֵיִלִּי ḡēl-ā, Syriac ḡayḡal-ā 'deer', Mandaic aiala 'deer, hart', Arabic ḡayḡil-, ḡiḡḡal- ~ ḡuyḡal- 'mountain goat, stag', Ge'ez hayḡal 'ibex, mountain goat' (the origin of h- is mysterious), Akkadian ayḡal-u 'deer'; Canaanite > Late Egyptian ḡjr (= \*ḡayḡālī ~ \*ḡayḡōlī gen., according





*Capreolus*’; the route of borrowing may have been different as well: from an unknown Tungusic source to Yakut and then to Lamut and Ewenki || ??  
**Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. \*✓bδχ > Arabic baḍaḥ-, buḍaḥ- ‘lamb’ (if \*-δχ- < \*-θχ-) ||  
 ?? East Chadic: Lele b̥isí ‘duiker’.

[39] **\*buḳa** ‘bovine(s)’ > **Hamito-Semitic:** Semitic \*baḳar- ‘cattle’ > Hebrew בָּקָר bāḳār, Jewish Aramaic באָרֵא baḳ’r-ā, Syriac ܒܳܩܳܪܳܐ baḳ’r-ā ‘cattle’, Arabic baqar- ‘(wild\domesticated) bovines, ox, bull, cow’, Sabaic bḱr ‘bovines, head of cattle’; der. Semitic stem \*buḳār- > Arabic buḳār- ‘head of (large) cattle’, Akkadian buḳār- ‘cattle’ || ? Berber \*✓bḱr > Ahaggar Twareg bəṽər v. ‘be rich’ || East Chadic: Birgit b̥ògòrò ‘male antelope’, b̥ògòréy ‘female antelope’, Dangla bóǵór ‘antelope’, ? Mokilko b̥òrgú ‘horse antelope (kudu), ? Migama ḥârgú ‘oryx antelope’ || **Indo-European** ≈ \*būk-/bowk- ‘bull’ > proto-Slavic \*b+kъ (< \*būko-) ‘bull’ > Bulgarian Бик, Serbo-Croatian bīk, Slovene bīk, Czech, Slovak buýk, Polish buýk, Russian БЫК ‘bull’; proto-Slavic \*bъkъ (< \*buk-) > Serbo-Croatian bāk ‘bull’ || Celtic f. \*bukk-ō ‘cow’ > Old Welsh buch ‘iuvenca’, Cornish buch ‘cow’, Breton buc’h~buc’h ‘cow’ ¶ IE \*b- < \*bʰ- due to the IE law of incompatibility of voiced aspirates and voiceless consonants || **Altaic:** Turkish \*buka ‘bull, sire bull’ > Old Turkic buqā, Chaghatay buṽa, Turkish boğā, Türkmen, Volga Tatar buga, Middle Qipchaq buṽa, Qazaq, Uzbek, East Turkic buqa, Azeri, Crimea Tatar, Karaites, Qumiq, Nogay, Qaraqalpaq, Bashqurt, Yakut buṽa, Khakas puṽa, Tuva p̄uṽa, Tofalar p̄uṽa ‘bull’ || Mongolic (< Turkic?) \*buqa ‘bull’ > Class. Mongolian buqa id., Halha buḡ ‘sire-bull’, Kalmuck buḡ ‘Stier’.

[40] **\*čoma** ‘aurochs, wild bovine’ > **Kartv.** \*čoma > Imereti Georgian čoma ‘cattle (Rindvieh)’ || **Drau.** \*čoma ‘wild buffalo’ > Pengo homa, Manda hama ‘bison’, Kui soma ‘wild buffalo’, Kuwi homma 𐎠 homa ‘sambar’.

[41] ? \*č’a’wḷṽRV (or \*čūRV) ‘bull, calf’ > **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. \*ʰawar- ‘bull’ > Hebrew נֹרִי šōr, pl. נֹרִיִּים šəwā’rīm, Ugaritic Br, Bibl. Aramaic pl. תֹּרִין tōrīn, Jewish Aramaic תֹּרֵא tōr-ā, Syriac ܬܳܐܳܪܳܐ taw’r-ā, Arabic ثَوْر θawr-, Epigraphic South Arabian 𐩦𐩣𐩪𐩣, Ge’ez, Tigre 𐩦𐩣𐩪𐩣 sōr,

Akkadian *šūr-* | Sem.  $\rightarrow$  IE *\*tawro-s* ‘bull, aurochs’ > Mycenaean Greek *tawros*, Greek *ταῦρος* id. || Albanian *tarok*, *tarak* || Latin *taurus*, Oscan acc. *ταυρον*, Umbrian acc. pl. *turuf*, *toru* id. || Old Irish *tarb*, Irish *tarbh*, Welsh *tarw*, Breton *tarv*, Cornish *tarow* id. || Slavic *\*turь* > Old Church Slavonic **тоурь** *turь* ‘aurochs’ | Lithuanian *taũras* ‘aurochs’, Prussian *tauris* ‘bison’; Baltic  $\rightarrow$  Finnish *tarvas* ‘reindeer’ || Old Norse *þjórr*, Swedish *tjur*, Dutch (dial.) *deur* ‘bull’ || **Indo-European** *\*stewr-/stowr-* ‘bull’ > Avestan *staora* ‘large cattle’, Middle Persian *stōr* ‘draught-animal’, Persian *sutūr* ~ *ustūr* ‘beast of burden (horse, mule, ass)’ || Gothic *stiur* ‘male calf, bull’, Old Norse *stiórr*, Old High German *stior*, German *Stier*, Anglo-Saxon *stēor* ‘bullock, steer’, English *steer* || **Altaic**: [1] Tungusic *\*cūr-* (~ *\*cīr-*?) > Ewenki *cūrup* ‘wild deer (2–3 years old)’ and possibly Urmi Ewenki *cīrak*, Maya Ewenki *cīrāp* ‘elk (4 years old)’, Negidal *cīrap* ‘male elk (3–4 years old)’ || [2] Possibly Class. Mong. *zarī* ‘wild deer’ and Altay, Teleut, Quu-Kizhi *car* ‘ox (Ochs, Arbeitsochs, кладеный\рабочий бык)’, Baraba, Küärik *čar* ‘ox’  $\rightarrow$  Class. Mong. *car*, Kalmuck *car*, Halha *шар* ‘castrated ox’ (in this case Nostr. *\*awR* > Alt. *\*aR*).

[42] *\*y|gawV* ‘wild sheep\goats’, ( $\rightarrow$  or  $\leftarrow$ ) ‘wild game’ > **Indo-Eur.** *\*xowī-* ‘sheep’ > Hittite *udu-iš* [= *\*xaw-is*] ‘sheep’, Luwian *xawī-*, Lycian *ḫawā* id. || Narrow IE *\*h<sub>2</sub>owī-(s)* ‘sheep’ > Old Indian *avī-* || Greek *ῥυς* id. || Latin *ovī-s* || Old Irish *óí* ‘sheep’ || Old Norse *ærr*, Anglo-Saxon *éowu*, *éowe*, Old Saxon *ewi*, Old High German *ouwi*, *ou* ‘sheep’, English *ewe*, as well as Gothic *awīstr* ‘sheep-cote, sheep-pen’, *awēpi* ‘flock of sheep’ || Lithuanian *avīs*, Latvian *avs* | Old Church Slavonic *овь-ца*, Russian *овца* ‘sheep’; Church Slavonic, Old Russian *овьнь*, Serbo-Croatian *òvan*, Bulgarian *о'вѣн*, Czech *oven* ‘ram’ || Armenian *hoviw* (< *\*h<sub>2</sub>owī-pā-*) ‘shepherd’ || **Ham.-Sem.**: Egyptian *ꜥw.t* ‘Kleinvieh (Schafe und Ziegen)’, ‘Wild’, ‘vierfüssige Tiere’ || ?? West Chadic: Angas-Goemay *\*yV* ‘goat’ > Sura *yṣ̣ṣ̣*, Angas *yṣ̣ṣ̣*, Yiwom *yṣ̣ṣ̣* | Fyer *ṛṛ* id. | ? Warji *áwáy* id. || Central Chadic: Gude gr.: Nzangi *hṛwə*, Bata-Garua *hũé* ‘goat’ | Mandara: Nakatsa *oṣwā*, Glavda *ǎgʷā*, Dghwede *ṣ̣wè*, *ṣ̣wè* id., Giziga *ǎw* | Zime-Batna *úhʷú* id. || ? East Chadic: Dangla *áw-kò*

id. || **Altaic** \*ābV ‘wild game, hunt’ > Turkic \*āb id. > Old Turkic āv ‘hunt’, Türkmen āv, Turkish av, Uzbek ov, East Turkic av 𐰇𐰺𐰍 𐰇𐰺𐰍, Qumïq haw, Crimea Tatar, Karaite av ‘wild game, hunt’, Qazaq, Volga Tatar av, Qırghız ū ‘hunt’ ||| Mongolic \*aba > Middle Mongolian, Class. Mong. aba, Halha av ‘chase, hunt’ ||| ? Tungusic \*abdu-(ᑭᑭ) ‘cattle, flock’ > Ewenki abdu id., ‘domesticated reindeer’, Lamut abdu ‘husbandry, property’, Negidal abdun ‘flock’, Orok abdu ‘husbandry, property, wealth’.

[43] **\*diga** ‘goat’ > **Kartv.** \*dqa- ‘goat’ > Old Georgian, New Georgian txa, Megrelian txa- (pl. txał-), Laz (m)txa- [pl. (m)txał-], Svan daqəl-, daq- || **Ham.-Sem.:** Omotic \*dɔŋg-~\*dɔŋk- ‘capricorn, lamb’ > Oyda doge ‘greater kudu’, Basketo daɣiʃi, Doka dakiʃa ‘lamb’, Badditu deggele ‘goats’ ||| West Chadic: Angas-Goemay: Chip dɛŋgun ‘he-goat’, Kofyar dɛŋgún id. | Ron: Fyer ʔdákùs ‘he-goat’ || Central Chadic: Padokwo dɛŋg-zumə id. | Tera ʒĩg ‘goat’ || East Chadic: Ndam dɛŋgâ, Tumak ʒĩg ‘goat’ || **Indo-Eur.** \*digh-~\*dik- ‘goat’ > Greek (dial.) [Hesychius] δῖζα ‘goat’ || Albanian dhi || Old High German ziga ‘goat’ (> German Ziege) || Armenian tik ‘leather bottle, goat’s skin’ ◇ IE \*-k- is a regular reflex of the consonant \*-q-; the origin of the voiced \*-gʰ- is not clear; the initial \*d- for the expected \*dʰ- is probably due to the IE incompatibility law, forbidding a combination of voiced aspirates and voiceless consonants in the same root.

[44] **\*kʰāʕ** ‘wild goat’ (or ‘sp. of antelope’) > **Kartv.:** Svan kwiçra ‘wild goat’ || **Ham.-Sem.:** Berber \*✓ɣs (meta-emphatization from \*✓k-s) > Ahaggar Twareg ti-ɣse, Iznacen, Rif ti-χsi ‘goat’ ||| Omotic: Bencho kēš ‘goat’ ||| West Chadic: Hausa káɕáwɾɿ ‘(a kind of) antelope’, Ngizim gáskây ‘roam antelope’ || Central Chadic: Kilba kuʃiʃi ‘goat’ || **Altaic:** Turkic \*kʰäçi ‘goat’ > Old Oghuz, Chaghatay, Karaite käči, Turkish keçi, Osman ğäʒi, Azeri, Gagauz keçi, Türkmen geçi, Volga Tatar kăžă, Bashqurt kăžä.

[45] **\*bukEɣɿ** ‘billy goat, ram’ > **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem.: ? Ge’ez ብሕኩባሕክሠ ‘ram, billy goat’ (→ Ge’ez ብሕኩባሕክሠ id.) (acc. to Leslau, from Cushitic) ||| Berber \*✓bgg > Ahaggar Twareg a-baǵuǵ ‘young ram’ ||| Cushitic \*✓bkɿ (> \*✓bgɿ by assimilation) ‘sheep, goat’ > Beja bōk, Amar’ar Beja bok ‘billy

goat' || Agaw \*bɛg<sub>L</sub>᎐᎐᎐- 'sheep' > Khamir bɛg-a (pl. bɪg), Kwara bɛg-a, Kemant bɛga ⇨ Ge'ez በግዕ baggaፍ 'sheep, ram', Tigray bɛgፍi, Tigre bɛggፍ id.; Tigray → Bilin bɛgg-a (pl. bɛgg) id. || South Cush.: Iraqw, Gorowa bɛፍi, Alagwa bɛፍi 'sheep', Burunge bɛፍ-imo, pl. bɛፍ-a id., Kwadza baፑamuko 'ewe lamb', Dahalo bɛፑa 'buffalo' ||| Omotic: Kafa bagē, Shinasha baggō 'sheep' ||| Chadic \*(m)bakፑ 'ram, sheep' > West Chadic: South Bauchi: Kir mbak 'male' (referring to rams in: mbak par+m 'ram'), Dira bɛgáፑá, Geji bɛgáፑlè 'ram' || Central Chadic: Gude bɛgá, Fali of Jilbu bɛgà, Fali of Muchella bɛgè, Fali of Bwagira bɛgèፑn, Bata-Garua mbáፑፑe, Bata-Demsa bāፑፑé 'sheep', Mwulyen ፑፑbáፑá 'ram', ፑፑbáፑàtí 'sheep', Bachama ፑፑbáፑá 'ram', mbáፑáté 'sheep', Gudu mbæksü 'sheep' | Glavda mbákəፑlaka, Gava mbàkùፑkà 'ram' || **Indo-Eur.** (\*bʰǵHo- >)\*bʰǵō-s ~ ("Koseform", according to Pokorny) \*bʰukko-s 'billy goat, ram', f. \*bʰǵō-ā ~ \*bʰukk-ā 'she-goat, ewe' (Devoto: '*Capra prisca*') > Av būza 'he-goat', New Persian buz 'goat (male or female)' || Armenian buc '[sucking] lamb' || Celtic: Middle Irish bocc, pocc, Welsh bwch, Cornish boch, Breton bouc'h 'Bock' || Germanic \*bukka- > Old Norse bukk, bokk, bokki 'buck', Anglo-Saxon bucca > English buck, Old High German boc > German Bock || ? **Altaic:** Mongolic \*bugu 'deer' > Class. Mong. buፑu, Halha-Mong. buፑa, Kalmuck buፑፑ 'male deer', Monguor buፑu 'deer', Middle Mongolian buፑu- 'deer'; Mongolian → some Tungusic lgs.: Ewenki buፑu, Solon boፑo '*Cervus elaphus xanthopygos*', Manchu buፑu ~ buፑo ~ buፑu 'deer' ||| Turkic \*bugu > (or Mongolian ⇨ ) Old Uighur (13th c.) buፑu 'deer', Turkish (dial.), Uzbek, Qırghız buፑu, Nogay buፑı 'male deer', Chaghatay بوغو buፑu 'kind of antelope or wild goat', Qazaq būፑı 'deer'.

[46] \*᎐᎐᎐᎐᎐ 'wild boar' > **Ham.-Sem.**: Sem. \*᎐᎐᎐ > Arabic ᎐᎐᎐ ~ ᎐᎐᎐ 'wild boar, swine, young pig' (Freitag: ᎐᎐᎐- 'porcus, aper', ᎐᎐᎐- 'porcus') || **Indo-Eur.**: Narrow Indo-Eur. \*ap᎐-s 'wild boar' (with \*a on the analogy of \*kap᎐-s 'he-goat') > Latin aper, -ī 'wild boar', Umbrian apruf, ABROF id. (accus. pl.), aprunu id. (acc. sg.) || Germanic \*ebura- 'wild boar' > Anglo-Saxon eofor, Middle Low German ever, Old High German ebur, German Eber || Balto-Slavic \*weprya- (with \*w- on the analogy of some other word) > Latvian vepriፑ 'castrated boar' | Slavic

\*veprь ~ \*veprь ‘wild boar’ > Old Russian вєпрь, Russian вепрь, Bulgarian 'вєпър ‘wild boar’, Ukrainian 'вєпер ‘wild boar, hog’, Serbo-Croatian вѣпар, Polish wieprz, Czech vepř ‘hog’ || ? Thracian ἔβρος ‘ram’.

[47] \*ʕirʕi¹ ‘(male, young) artiodactyl’ > **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. \*ʕayr- ~ \*ʕīr- ‘male wild ass, ass foal’ > Biblical Hebrew עֵיִר ʕayir, Samaritan Hebrew ʕīr ‘male ass, ass foal’, (with a possessive pronominal suffix) Biblical Hebrew עֵיִרְוֹ ʕīr-ō ‘his ass foal’ (the pl. form of the Masoretic tradition עֵיִרִים, ʕayrīm is on the analogy of \*ʕa2a3- nouns, cp. the Samar. Hebrew cognate form עֵיִרָם ʕīrām), Ugaritic ʕr, Jewish Aramaic עֵיִרָא ʕīr-ā ‘ass foal’, Arabic ʕayr- ‘wild ass, ass’ || **Kartv.** \*ʕir- > Georgian irem- ‘deer’ || **Indo-Eur.** \*h¹er(i)- > Narrow IE \*er-, eri- ‘(some) horned artiodactyl’ > Latin ariēs, ariēt- ‘ram’ ||| Baltic: Prussian eristian ‘Lämmchen’, Lithuanian (j)éras, Latvian jērs ‘lamb’ |||| NaIE \*er(i)-bʰ- (with the suffix \*-bʰ(o)- of animal names) > Greek ἔρως- ‘Böcklein, junge Ziege’ ||| Celtic: Old Irish heirp (\*erbʰ-ī-) ‘dama, capra’, erb(b) (\*erbʰ-ā-) ‘cow’, Gaelic earb ‘Reh’ ||| Tocharian yriye, yari ‘lamb’ || **Drav.** \*ir- ‘(a kind of) deer, stag’ > Old Telugu iri ‘stag’, Tamil iralay ‘stag, kind of deer’, Kannada erale, erale, Tulu erale ‘antelope, deer’ ◇ The IE root results from coalescence of two Nostr. roots: the one in question and Nostr. \*ʔerqʕi¹ ‘(a species of) horned ruminant artiodactyl’. I am grateful to V. Blažek for drawing my attention to this detail and to the Tocharian cognate of the root.

[48] \*poḳū ‘pack, wild cattle’ > **Indo-Eur.** \*peḱu / \*peḱwe- ‘cattle’ > Old Indian 'paśu- ~ paśu- (gen. paś'vaḥ) ‘cattle’, Avestan pasu- id. (mainly ‘Kleinvieh’) | Latin pecū (gen. pecūs), pecus (gen. pecoris) ‘cattle’, Umbrian pequo ‘pecua’ | Germanic: Gothic faīhu ‘property’, Old Norse fē, Anglo-Saxon feoh, Old Saxon fehu, Old High German fihu ‘Vieh’ | Lithuanian pekus, Prussian peku id. || **Altaic** \*p'ok'ūr- ‘bovine animal, bull’ > Turkic \*ḥököür-/\*ḥokuṛ- ‘bull, ox’ > Old Turkic öküṣ ‘bull, ox’, Sarī-Yugur kus~qus, East Turkic öküz, (dial.) höküṣ, Uzbek hōkiz ‘ox’, Turkish öküz, Türkmen öküṣ, Azeri öküz, Crimea

Karaite ögüz, Trakai Karaite öǵüz ‘bull, ox’, Qumuq, Qarachay-Balqar ögüz ‘ox’, Crimean Tatar oǵüz ‘bull’, Lobnor ögüs ‘bull’, Qazaq, Nogay, Qaraqalpaq ögiz ‘ox’, Volga Tatar ügbz, Bashqurt ügbδ ‘bull’, Yakut oγus ‘ox, male domestic animal’, Chuvash ႁႃႅႃႃ ‘bull’ ||| Mongolic \*ṗüker ‘bovine animal (bull, ox, cow)’ > Middle Mongolian hūker ‘large cattle’, Class. Mongolian üker, Halha, Buryat ᠶᠬᠭᠦᠷ, Kalmuck ükḡ, Moghol ükār, Dagur ᠶᠡᠭᠦᠷ, Dongxiang fugie(r), Monguor fuguor ‘bull, ox’ ||| ??? **Ham.-Sem.:** East Chadic: Ndam pàǵḡr ‘antelope’.

[49] **\*gadi** (or **\*gati?**) ‘kid, young goat’, ? ‘(a kind of) antelope’ > **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. \*<sup>l</sup>gadiy- ‘kid, lamb’ > Biblical Hebrew ᵑᵑᵏ ḡāḏī ‘kid\lamb’, Punic ḡḏṗ, [Plautus] GADE, Old Aramaic ḡḏṗ ‘goat’, Jewish Aramaic ᵑᵑᵏ ḡāḏīy-ā ‘kid\lamb’, Syriac ḡāḏīy-ā ‘kid’, Mandaic ḡāḏīa ‘kid, young goat’, Arabic ḡāḏīy- ‘kid (chevreau)’, Akkadian ḡāḏū ‘male kid’ ||| Berber \*Ṣaǵid (< pre-Berber \*ḡaǵid) ‘kid, (young) goat’ > Ahaggar Twareg e-Ṣaǵid, Tayert, East Tawellemmet e-Ṣṣyṣyṣ, Ghat i-Ṣyid, Ghadamsi a-ṣīḏ (pl. ṣīḏ-ān) ‘kid’, Ait-Izdeg i-Ṣṣyṣyṣ ‘young billy-goat (jeune bouc, chevreau)’, Tashelhit a-Ṣṣṣṣ ‘billy-goat’ ||| Chadic: West Chadic: Hausa ḡàḏǎ ‘crested duiker (antelope) *Cephalophus Grimmī*’, ḡàḏár kúrmì ‘duiker *Cephalophus rufilatus*’, Pa’a ḡàtará ‘buck’ ||| Central Chadic: Zime-Batna ḡódàṣ ‘buck’, Dghwede ṣṣṣṣ ḡírè ‘antelope’ ||| **Indo-Eur.** \*ḡḡḡaydo- ‘(young) buck, goat’ > Latin haedus ‘kid, young goat’ ||| Gothic gait̃s, Old High German geiz, Old Norse geit, Anglo-Saxon ȝēt > English goat ¶ The *media* \*-d- (for the expected \*-dʰ-) is obscure ||| **Drau.** \*kaṭ- ‘young male of horned domestic animal’ > Tamil kaṭā, kaṭavū, kaṭay ‘male of sheep\goat\buffalo’, kaṭāri, kiṭāri ‘heifer, young cow’, Malayalam kaṭā, kiṭā, kiṭāvū ‘young male of cattle’, Kota kaṛṇaṅ ‘buffalo calf between 2 and 3 years’, kaṛṇ kurl ‘cow calf between 2 and 3 years’, Kannada kaḍasu, Kodagu kaḍṣi, Tulu ḡaḍasa ‘young cow\buffalo’, Gondi kāṛā ‘young buffalo’, Konda ḡṛālu, Kui ḡṛāḍu ‘calf’, Kui kṛāḷ ‘young female buffalo\goat’, Kurukh kaṛī id., kaṛā ‘young male buffalo’, Brahui ɣaṛ ‘ram’, ɣaṛās ‘bull, bullock’ ◇ The preconsonantic (rather than expected postconsonantic) position of \*ḷ, \*y in Berber and Indo-Eur. is due to

metathesis (possibly favoured by root structure patterns in both languages).

[50] **\*bUy2V** ‘fur-bearing animal’ > **Indo-Eur.** **\*bʰel-** ‘marten’ or sim. > Latin *fēlēs* ‘wild cat, marten, polecat’ ||| Welsh *bele* (< **\*bʰelego-**) ‘marten’ || **Uralic** **\*poy2V** ‘ermine’ > proto-Lapp **\*pōyt3k** id. > Norw. Lapp *buoidâ* ~ *buoi'dâgâ*, Kildin Lapp *puȳ:deȳ* ||| Samoyedic: Tundra Nenets *пия*, *пияко*, Forest Nenets *pȳȳ:eg* & *pȳȳ:eg*, Bay Enets *fiédâ*, Nganasan *fīđu*, *pīđu*, Mator *hudja* ‘ermine’ ¶¶ Nen *пияко* and originally Lapp **\*pōyt3k** are diminutive forms || **Altaic**: Mongolic **\*bulʼuʼgan** ‘sable’ > Middle Mongolian *bulugan* ~ *bulʼan*, Class. Mong. *bulagan*, Halha-Mong. *булга(н)*, Kalmuck *булһн* *bulʼān* id. || **Drav.** **\*pulʼli** ‘tiger’ > Tamil *puli*, *puḷ*, Malayalam, Kannada, Telugu *puli*, Kota *pu3*, Toda *pūṣy*, Tulu *pili*, Koraga *hili*, Kolami, Naikri *puḷ*, Naiki *puḷ(a)*, Gadba *pullu* & *pulu* & *berpuḷ*, Gondi *pullī* & *puli* & *puḷ*.

[51] **\*ʔhUrV(-ba)** ‘squirrel or a similar animal’ > **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. **\*ʔhVrrab-** > Akkadian *arrabu* ‘dormouse (?)’, ‘jerboa (?)’ || **Indo-Eur.** **\*wer-** (and with reduplication: **\*werwer-**, **\*wewer-**, **\*waywer-**, **\*wiwer-**, **\*wāwer-**) ‘squirrel’ and sim. > New Persian *varvara* ‘squirrel’ || Latin *vīverra* ‘polecat’ || Welsh *gwiwer*, Breton *gwiber* ‘squirrel’ || Lithuanian *vaiveris* ~ *vaivaras* ~ *vaivarys* ‘male polecat’, *vėveris*, *vaiveris*, *voveris*, *voverė* ‘squirrel’, Latvian *vāvere*, -is id., Prussian *weware* id. | Slavic **\*věverьka**, -ika ‘squirrel’ > Old Church Slavonic *věverica*, Polish *wiewiórka*, Czech *veverka*, Ukrainian *вивірка*, Serbo-Croatian (v) *jeverica* || Germanic **\*ajk-werna** ~ **\*īkwerna** ‘squirrel’ > Anglo-Saxon *āc-weorna*, Old Norse *īkorni*, Old High German *eihhurno*, *eihhorn*, German *Eichhhorn* ‘squirrel’ || **Uralic** **\*ora**, **\*ora-pa** ‘squirrel’ > Finnish *orava* ‘squirrel’, Estonian *orav*, *oravas* id., proto-Lapp **\*ʔrēV** > Norw. Lapp *oar're* | Erzya & Moksha Mordvin *ur* ‘squirrel’ || Cheremis *ur* ‘squirrel’ || Ziryene *ur* id. ||| Samoyedic: in a Samoyedic language of the Sayan region (Pallas: ‘*ejus stirpis monticolis sajanensibus*’) *орр* ‘*Sciurus striatus*’ || **Drav.** **\*urutt-** > Tamil *uruttay*, Telugu *uruta* ‘squirrel’.

[52] **\*k̥un|ḥ̥∇(f̥∇)** ‘small carnivore (marten, polecat, wild cat, or sim.)’ > **Kartv.** **\*k̥wenr-** ‘marten’ > Old Georgian **kuerna-**, Georgian **kuerna-**, Megrelian **kuvinor-i**, Laz **kuvenur-i**, Svan **r̥k̥wen-** ~ **k̥(w)en-** id. || **Indo-Eur.** (attested in Balto-Slavic only) **\*keun-/koun-** ‘marten’ > Lithuanian **kiáunė**, **kiāunė**, Latvian **caūna**, -e, Prussian **caune** id. | **Slavic** **\*kuna** ‘marten’ > Church Slavonic **коуна** **kuna** ‘αἴλουρος, felis’, Bulgarian **куна**, Serbo-Croatian, Slovene **kúna**, Czech, Polish **kuna**, Old Russian **коуна** **kuna**, Russian (dial.) **куна** ~ **ку'на**, Ukrainian **ку'на** ‘marten’; derived Slavic **\*kunica** ‘marten’ > Church Slavonic **коуница** **kunica** ‘αἴλουρος, felis’, Serbo-Croatian **kùnica**, Slovene **kúnica**, Polish **kunica**, Russian **ку'ница** ‘marten’ || **Ham.-Sem.**: South Cushitic: Iraqw **qaínâ/i/a** ‘civet cat’ ||| ? Chadic: West Chadic: Hausa **kʷânwà**, Pero **kāndà** ‘cat’, Bole **šənwa** ‘wild cat’ ||| East Chadic: Somray **kójna** ‘cat’ ||| ? Sem. **\*k̥∇nd∇r-** (< **\*\*k̥∇nr-**?) > Arabic **قندر** **qndr** (with unknown vowels) ‘beaver’ || **Altaic** **\*k̥l̥j̥üřänä** (metathesis from **\*\*k̥l̥j̥ünäřä**) ‘marten, polecat’ > Turkic **\*k̥l̥j̥üřelän** > Narrow Turkic **\*k̥l̥j̥üzelän** ‘polecat’ > Old Turkic **küzän** id., Cuman **kara küzen** ‘polecat’, Türkmen **göden**, Uzbek **сассиқ** **küşan** **sassiq kwzan**, Qazaq, Altay, Khakas **küzen**, Volga Tatar **көзән** **köžän**, Bashqurt **köžän** ‘polecat’, Tuva **küzen** ‘marten’ | Old Bulghar **ḡ** Hungarian **görény** ‘polecat’ ||| Mongolic **\*kürene** > Class. Mong. **kürene**, Halha-Mong. **хүрнэ** ‘skunk, polecat, weasel’, Kalmuck **күрн** **kürna**, **kürn** ‘polecat, iltis’ ◇ The word may have denoted some small carnivore (marten, polecat, wild cat, or ichneumon; all of them live in different parts of Southwestern Asia; in modern Israel the marten is known as **נִמְיָא** **nimi'ya**).

#### 4.2. Gatherers

They *harvested* (**\*qaR̥p̥|ḥ̥∇** and **\*zük∇**; see above entries [15] and [16]) different kinds of *cereals* (**\*gaL∇** and **\*χānt̥∇** cf. above entries [17] and [18]; **\*dik̥∇**), plucked *figs* (**\*ɪibrE** [1], **\*ʒ̥uḡb∇**), other kinds of *fruit* (**\*b̥i'í'ruw̥¹ga**), *nuts* (**\*k̥uS∇**, **\*L̥∇w̥j̥z̥∇**), possibly *pistachio nuts* (**\*buṭ̥∇**), gathered several kinds of *berries* (**\*m̥o'lyj̥z̥∇**, **\*marlyja**) and possibly *peas* (? **\*k̥Er∇**), dug out *root-crops* (**\*m̥u'ṛk̥∇**[-**ḡk̥∇**]).

[53] **\*dik̥∇** ‘edible cereals or fruit’ > **Hamito-Semitic**: Berber **\*dāḡ-** > Ahaggar Twareg **taḡaq** (pl. **tiḡāyīn**) ‘grain (of cereals)’, Taitoq **taḡaq** (pl.



tiḡaḡin) ‘grain (of wheat, barley)’ ¶ The vowel \*-ā- belongs to the Ham.-Sem. derivational pattern of collective nouns ||| ? Egyptian dḡr ‘fruit’ (a general word for edible fruit) || **Kartv.** \*diḡ- ‘wheat’ > Georgian diḡa ‘wheat (*Triticum persicum*)’, Laz diḡa ‘wheat’ || **Altaic** \*diK- ⇨ diK-ktä ‘edible berries’ > Turkic \*jigdä ‘edible berries (of *Elaeagnus*), the berries *Zizypha rubra*’ > Old Turkic jigdä ‘jujube tree (*Zizyphus angustifolia*) and its fruit (an edible berry)’ or ‘*Elaeagnus*’, Türkmen iḡde ‘*Elaeagnus* and its berry; date fruit’, Türkmen (dial.) žigde ‘*Elaeagnus*’, Turkish iğde, Azeri iydä, Qırghız, Qaraqalpaq žiyde, Qazaq žbyde, Uzbek žiyda ~ žiydä ‘*Elaeagnus* and its berries’ ||| Tungusic \*žikte ‘berry’ > Ewenki jikt3 id., Negidal jikt3 ‘great bilberries, bilberries, whortleberries’, Orochi, Ude žikt3 ‘great bilberries’ || **Drav.** \*tik<sub>1</sub>k<sub>1</sub>∇ > Kurukh tīḡḡl ‘rice, paddy cleansed of its husk’, Malto tiḡaḡu ‘rice’.

[54] \*žžugb∇ ‘(a kind of) fig tree’ > **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. \*zḡb > Arabic ʔazḡab- ‘a big fig-tree’ ||| ? Egyptian d3b ‘fig, fig-tree’ ||| Central Chadic: Glavda acúwa ‘fig tree’ || **Drav.** \*cuḡ- ‘fig, fig tree’ > Tamil cuḡi ‘white fig, *Ficus infectoria*; stone fig, *Ficus gibbosa parasitica*’, cuḡalai ‘pipal, *Ficus religiosa*’, Kolami cuḡi id., Malayalam cuḡann-āl ‘*Ficus infectoria*’, Kannada juḡvi mara id., Telugu juḡvi ‘*Ficus tsiela*’, Parji 3ḡ meri, Gondi 3ḡ maḡa ‘a species of *Ficus*’ (Kannada mara, Parji meri, Gondi māḡa ‘tree’).

[55] ?? \*b<sup>1</sup>i<sup>1</sup>ḡu<sup>1</sup>ga ‘(a kind of) edible fruit’ > **Kartv.** \*brḡen or \*berḡwen ‘wild pear’ or ‘wild plum’ > Georgian (dial.) b(e)rḡena ‘wild pear *Pyrus clicifolia*’, Svan barḡwen, bärḡen ‘wild plum’ || **Indo-Eur.** \*b<sup>1</sup>rūg- ‘fruit’, ‘to use (as fruit)’ > Latin frūg- (nom. frūx, gen. frūgis) ‘fruit’, Umbrian accus. pl. frif, fri ‘fruits’, Latin fruor, frui, frūctus ~ fruitus sum v. ‘have the benefit of’, frūmentum ‘corn’, Oscan fruktatiuf (\*frūgetātiōnis) ‘fruit’ ||| Gothic brūkjan, Old High German brūhhan, Old Saxon brūkan, Anglo-Saxon brūcan ‘make use of’, German brauchen id., ‘to need’, Gothic brūks, Old High German brūhhi, Anglo-Saxon brūce ‘useful’ || ?? **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem.: Arb birḡūq- ~ burḡūq- ‘*prunum, malum Armeniacum*’ (unless ⇐ Late

Greek προκόκκλον ~ πρεκόκκλον ← Latin praecox) || ? (ambiguous)  
**Drau.** \*piṛṛṛka (~ \*piṛṛṛla) ‘green mango fruit’ > Kannada piṛika, prṛka, piṛka id., Pengo, Manda pṛṛla id., Kui pṛia, Kuwi pṛṛla ‘unripe mango fruit’ (unless akin to Sem. \*ṗiriy- ‘fruit’).

[56] \*ḲuSṼ ‘nut’ > **Indo-Eur.** \*kos(e)lō- ‘hazel’ > Latin corulus ‘hazel-tree’, colurnus ‘made of hazel-wood’ ||| Celtic \*koslō- ‘hazel’ > Gaulish koslō- id. (in proper names), Old Irish, Old Welsh coll ‘hazel’, Cornish col-widen id., Old Breton coll ‘made of hazel-wood’ ||| Old High German hasal(a) > German Hasel, Anglo-Saxon hǣsel > English hazel, Old Norse hasl ‘hazel’ ||| ? Old Lithuanian kasulas ‘Jägerspieß’ (Pokorny: ‘Jägerspieß’ als ‘Hasler’) || **Altaic** \*kʷusi ‘nut’ > Turkic \*kḷʷusik ‘nut’ > Old Turkic qusıq ‘pine kernel’, Altay, Quu-Kizhi, Qumanda quzuq, Khakas xuzux ‘nut’, Teleut, Quu-Kizhi, Sagay, Koibal Turkic quzuq ‘cedar nut’; Turkic → Persian qusūq ‘pine kernel’ ||| Mongolic \*qusi-(gan) ‘nut’ > Class. Mong. qusi-gan (pl. qosi-d), Halha-Mong. xywra ‘nut, walnut’; back formation: Mongolic \*qusi ‘cedar’ > Class. Mong. qusi, Halha-Mong. xyw id. ||| Tungusic \*xusi-kta ‘acorn, nut’ > Ude uḥikta, Ulcha osta, Nanay xosaqta ~ osaqta ‘acorn’, Urmi Ewenki usikta ‘oak’ (← \*‘acorn’), Class. Manchu usiya ‘nut’.

[57] \*LṼǰṼ (or \*LṼwǰṼ) ‘(a kind of) nut’, ‘nut-tree\shrub’ > **Kartvelian:** Georgian leṣa ‘green walnut-shell’ || **Ham.-Sem.:** Semitic \*lūḏ|z or \*lawḏ|z- ‘almond tree’ > Hebrew לֵזַב lūz, Canaanite → Aramaic: Jewish Aramaic, Syriac luʿz-ā, Mandaic luza; Aramaic → Arabic lawz-, Geʿez lawz id., Harari lāz ‘groundnut’ || **Indo-Eur.** \*lazd- ‘hazel-bush’ > Lithuanian lazda ~ lazà ‘stick, hazel-stick’, lazdygas ‘hazel-bush’, Latvian la(g)zda, lazds, lēgzda, lēgzds id., Prussian laxde ‘hazel-bush’ ||| Armenian last ‘raft, boat; wooden bedstead, wooden bank’ ||| Tosk Albanian lajʿthi ‘hazelnut, hazel-bush’.

[58] \*buṭṼ ‘pistachio tree\nut’ > **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. \*ḇuṭḷuṇ|m- id. > Hebrew pl. בִּטְנִים buṭṛnīm ‘*Pistacia terebinthus* L.’, Jewish Aramaic buṭṛn-ā, buṭṛm-ā, Syriac beṭm-əṭṭ-ā id., Arabic buṭm- ‘terebinth tree’, Geʿez (<

Arabic?)  $b\bar{a}t\bar{m} \sim b\bar{u}t\bar{m}$  ‘terebinth tree’, Akkadian  $bu\bar{t}n-u$  ‘terebinth tree\wood’,  $bu\bar{t}n-atu$ ,  $bu\bar{t}um-t-u$ ,  $bu\bar{t}tu\bar{t}u$  ‘pistachio tree\wood\nut’ || **Altaic:** Turkic  $*butur\bar{y}aq$  > Old Turkic  $butur\bar{y}aq$  ‘a thorn tree which is shaped like a pistachio tree and has thorns which catch the clothing’, Siberian Tatar (Tar dial.)  $butur\bar{y}aq$  ‘a tree which has split and is bound round to save it from collapse’; Turkic  $*bitrik$  ‘pistachio nut’ > Old Turkic  $bitrik$  id.

[59]  $*mar_{Ly}\nabla$  ‘(mul-, black-) berries’ > **Indo-Eur.**  $*mor-$  ‘mulberry, blackberry’ > Armenian  $mor$  ‘blackberry’,  $mori$ ,  $moreni$  ‘blackberry bush’ || Greek  $\mu\acute{o}\rho\omicron\nu$  ‘mulberry, blackberry’ || Latin  $m\bar{o}rum$  id. || Old Irish nom. pl.  $mera$  ‘mulberry tree’, Welsh  $merwydd(en)$  ‘mulberry’ || **Ham.-Sem.:**  $\bar{\imath}$  Egyptian  $mr$  ‘mulberry tree (*morus* tree)’ (according to Budge, supposedly attested in the Palermo Stele) ¶ The word is mentioned by Budge only and not confirmed by more reliable sources and is therefore questionable || **Kartv.**  $*mar\bar{c}q\bar{w}-$  ‘strawberry’ > Georgian  $mar\bar{c}q\bar{v}-$ , Svan  $basq\bar{i}-$ ,  $b\bar{a}sq-$  id. ¶¶ This is a compound of  $*mar_{Ly}a$  +  $*\bar{c}\nabla m\bar{q}U$  (a root represented by Kartv.  $*cim\bar{q}w-$  ‘strawberry [or bilberry]’ > Georgian  $cm\bar{q}va$ , Megrelian  $c\bar{a}m\bar{i}wa$ ,  $cim\bar{i}wa$  ‘strawberry’, Upper Bal Svan  $cinga$  ‘bilberry’) || **Uralic:** Finno-Ugric  $*marya$  ‘berries’ > Finnish  $marja$ , Estonian  $mar\bar{i}$  id. | proto-Lapp  $*m\bar{o}ry\bar{e}$  id. > Norw. Lapp  $mu\bar{o}r\bar{i}je$ , etc. | Erzya & Moksha Mordvin  $ma\bar{r}$  ‘berries’ (in compounds) | Highland Cheremis  $m\bar{o}r$  ‘berry’, Eastern Cheremis  $m\bar{o}r$  &  $m\bar{o}r\bar{o}$  ‘garden strawberries’ || Ob-Ugric  $*m\bar{\nabla}:r-$  > proto-Vogul  $*m\bar{a}r\bar{i}$  > Middle Lozva Vogul  $mo\bar{a}ri$ , North. Vogul  $m\bar{a}:ri$  ‘stalk of berries’,  $m\bar{o}ri\eta/p\bar{i}l$  ‘bunchy berries’; proto-Ostyak  $*mur\bar{a}p$  ‘bunch of berries’ > Teryugan Ostyak  $mur\bar{a}p$  id., etc. || **Altaic** (according to A. Dybo)  $*mer\bar{u}$  > Turkic  $*m\bar{i}b\bar{u}r\bar{u}$  ‘strawberry’ > Quba Azeri  $m\bar{u}ri$  ‘strawberry’ || Korean  $m\bar{a}ru$ , Southwestern Korean  $mo\bar{r}\bar{a}$  ‘wild grapes’.

[60]  $*m'o'_{Ly}\bar{z}\nabla$  ‘(a kind of) berry’ > **Uralic:** Finno-Ugric  $*mo\bar{z}\nabla$  ‘berries of some shrub’ > Cheremis  $mu\bar{o}\bar{b}$  &  $mo\bar{o}\bar{o}$  ‘bilberries’ | Permian  $*mo\bar{i}$  ‘berry, stone of a fruit’ > Votyak  $mu\bar{l}by$   $mu\bar{i}+$  ‘stone of a fruit’, Votyak (dial.)  $mu\bar{i}+$  &  $mo\bar{i}\bar{z}$  ‘berry, nut’, Ziryene  $\acute{n}ur-mo\bar{i}$  ‘cranberries’ ( $\acute{n}ur$  ‘swamp’),  $mo\bar{i}$  ‘button, stone of a fruit’, Yazvian  $t\bar{a}r-mu\bar{i}$  ‘cranberries’ ||

proto-Ostyak \*wǝr-mǝl 'red-currant' (\*wǝr 'blood') > Teryugan Ostyak wirmǝl, etc. | Hungarian mǝggy 'morello cherry (*Prunus cerasus*)' || **Altaic:** Tungusic \*mile-kte ~ (?) \*mɔl'i-kte 'ashberry' > Zeya Ewenki mɔlikta, Ewenki (dial.) miktɜ, Negidal miktan, Ulcha, Orok mɪlɜktɜ, Orok miktɜ ~ mittɜ id. || ?? **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem.  $\sqrt{\text{mšmš}}$  > Arabic mišmiš- [registered in Kamus] 'a kind of fruit' (Freytag: 'fructus nomen multum refrigerantis et debilitantis stomachum'), [Kamus] 'the plum piḡāṣ-un', 'apricot' || ?? **Indo-Eur.** \*māl- 'apple' > Latin mālum || Greek μῆλον, Doric Greek μᾶλον || Albanian mollë id. ◇ If the IE cognate is valid, the Nostr. reconstruction may be \*mou̯z̥ (where \*y is responsible for the length of the IE vowel, but was lost due to a law ruling out \*y before sonants). The original \*o may have been palatalized in Ob-Ugric, Hungarian (and Tungusic?) due to the influence of this \*y.

[61] \*K̥ER̥ 'fruit of a leguminous plant' or sim. > **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. \*K̥r̥r̥θ̥ > Syr k̥er̥aṭ't̥-ā 'fruit of the locust or carob tree', Arb قَرْظ qaraṭ- 'fruit of acacia' || East Chadic: Kwang k̥ir̥, Kera k̥írí, Jegu gír(k) 'bean(s)' || **Indo-Eur.** \*k̥i̯ker̥- 'pea(s)' > Armenian siseṙn 'chick-pea' || Greek κριός id. || L̥icer 'chick-pea' ◇ Sem. \*-θ̥- may go back to the second part of a nominal compound.

[62] \*m'ur̥rk̥(-ηK̥) 'root, root-crops, edible roots', (→?) 'sinew' > **Kartv.** \*mur̥k̥- > Georgian mur̥k̥-i 'stump of cabbage' || **Indo-Eur.** \*mr̥k̥- (~ \*br̥k̥-) 'edible roots, carrot' > Anglo-Saxon more, moru 'edible root, carrot, parsnip', Old High German mor(a)ha, German Mohrrübe, Möhre 'carrot' || proto-Slavic \*mьrk̥i / \*mьrk̥ьv- 'carrot' > Serbo-Croatian m̋rk̋va, Slovene m̋rk̋ev, m̋rk̋va, Old Czech mr̋kev, Czech mr̋kva, Old Russian morkovь, morkva, Russian мор'ковь | ? Baltic \*bur̥kū > Lithuanian bur̥kūnas id., Latvian bur̥kans id., 'Aetusa cynapium' || Greek [Hesychius] βράκανα 'wild vegetables' || **Ham.-Sem.:** East Cushitic \*mur̥k̥- 'tendon, nerve' > Oromo morg-aya id., Konso murq-a 'tip of the nose', Gidole mor̥k̥-a 'bone of nose, kneecap, soft part of ensete', Somali muruq- 'muscle', Burji morgánka mĩṣa 'ankle', Yaku mor̥ž-i? 'sinew of neck' || **Drav.** \*mur̥ṇk̥- > Tamil muruṇkaṭi 'Moringa

*pterygosperma*, Indian horse-radish tree', Kannada *nugga*, *nuggi*, Tulu *nurige*, *nurge*, Telugu *munaga*, Parji *munğa*, *mulğa*, Gondi (dial.) *mulgē*, *mungē* id. Konda *muṇṇa maram*, *muluṇa mara* id. (*mara*, *maram* 'tree'), Malayalam *muriṇṇa* '*Hyperanthera moringa*, Indian horse-radish', Kurukh *muṅgā* 'a shrub, the fruits & leaves of which are eaten as curry'; Drav. ⇨ Old Indian *muraṅgi-*, *muruṅgi-* '*Moringa pterygosperma*' || **Altaic:** Tungusic *\*muṅṇi* 'tendon' > Ewenki *muṇi* 𐰚𐰪𐰸 *mṣṇṇi* 'tendon (at the end of a muscle), muscle' ◇ The same Nostr. word is used both for the root and the sinew, which is explained by their common technical functioning as ropes.

## 5. Food

Many of the items of the Nostratic menu have been already mentioned in different contexts, e.g. the cereals they harvested (nos. [15]–[18] and [53]). They knew how to *pound* (*\*moḷḷi*) grains and to *bake* [*on hot stones*] (*\*ṛäPHi*) a sort of flat unleavened *bread* (*\*qUbpž*). They ate *meat* (*\*ṛomśa*) of several animals — mainly artiodactyls (see above nos. [5], [36]–[47], [49]) and knew how to appreciate the taste of *marrow and brain* (*\*ṛayṇo*), *liver* (*\*magḷiḷza*), other *pluck* (*\*ḡuḷz*) and *soft parts of the animal's body* (*\*ḡaḷḷu*). They ate *eggs* (*\*muṇa[-tḡd]*, *\*ṛaḷoḷwḡḷi*) and several kinds of *fish* (*\*ḷoḷi*, *\*doḷgiHU*, *\*mEnḷi*). One cannot be sure that they ate *caviar*, but certainly *hard roe* (*\*ṭüRḷ*, *\*ḷṛḷwḷ* or *\*ḷṛḷwḷE*) was known to them. They ate *root-crops* (*\*mṛḷḷ[-ḡḷ]* — see above [62]), *nuts* (*\*ḷuḷ*, *\*ḷwḷž* 'nuts', *\*buṭ* 'pistachio' — see [56] — [58]), *berries* (*\*marḷyḷ*, *\*moḷyž* — see [59]–[60]), enjoyed the taste of *figs* (*\*ṛibrE* [1]) and other *fruit* (*\*ḡbṛṛuḷga* [55]). Their 'cuisine nostratique' included *tasty beverage* (*\*mayž* [21]) and *honey* (*\*madu*).

[63] *\*moḷḷi* 'to pound, gnaw/smash into pieces' > **Indo-Eur.** *\*mel-*, *\*melh-* 'to grind, pound' > Hittite *mall(a)-* v. *mill*, *grind* ||| Armenian *malem* 'I break into pieces' ||| Greek *μύλη* 'mill' ||| Albanian *mjell* 'flour', *bluanj* (< *\*mlā-*) v. 'grind' ||| Latin *mol-ō*, *-ēre* v. 'grind' ||| Old Irish *melim* 'I grind' ||| Gothic, Old High German *malan*, German *mahlen*, Old Norse *mala* 'to mill', Old High German *muljan* 'to break into small pieces' ||| Lithuanian *malti* 'to mill' | Slavic *\*mel-ti* 'to grind, mill' > Old

Church Slavonic **МЛѢТИ** *mlěti* (1 sg. pres. *meljq*), Bulgarian *меля*, Serbo-Croatian *mlěti* / *měljem*, Slovene *mléti*, Czech *mléti* ~ *mlíti*, Polish *mleć* / *miele*, Old Russian **МОЛОТИ**, Russian *молотъ* / *мѣлю* || Tocharian A *maluwaät* ‘you (sg.) are pressing’, Tocharian B *melje* ‘they trample’ || ? Old Indian *mṛṇāti* ‘crushes, grinds’ (coalescence with Indo-Eur. \**mer-* ‘to rub’) || **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. \**✓mll* ‘crush, squeeze (e.g. for husking the grain)’ > Middle Hebrew, Jewish Aramaic, Mandaic *✓mll* v. ‘crush, squeeze, rub ears for husking the grain’, Biblical Hebrew *מַלְיָלָה* *malīlā*, Jewish Aramaic *מַלְיָלָה* *malīlā-tā* ‘Reibähren (noch milchige Ähren, deren Körner man ausreibt)’, Middle Hebrew *מַלְיָלָה* *malīlā* ‘ripe ear’, Arabic *✓mll* (II form) ‘presser, activer’ || **Uralic** \**mōl̥* ∇ ‘to crumble, break into pieces’, ‘a crumble’ > proto-Lapp \**mōl̥* ∇ > Norw. Lapp *moallo* ‘crumb, little, bit, piece, morsel’, *moallâni-* ~ *mollâni-* v. intr. ‘crumble away’ || Samoyedic \**m̥l̥* ∇ v. ‘break’ > Tundra Nenets *мӓлӓ- маӓа- ӓ мӓлье-* v. ‘break, smash’. Taz Sölqup *malä-* v. ‘gnaw’, Tīm Sölqup 1 sg. aor. *malāab* id., Kamassian *boʔdaʔām* ~ *buʔdaʔām* v. tr. ‘break’, Koibal *блаламъ* ‘I gnaw’, Mator *бальямъ* id. || **Altaic** \**mōl̥* ∇ > Mongolic \**mōlzi-* (< \**mōl-di-*) ‘to gnaw into pieces’ > Middle Moghol *mōlzi-*, Class. Mong. *mōlzi-*, Halha *mōlzi-*, Kalmuck *mōlzi-* ‘to gnaw’.

[64] \**ʔäPHi* ‘to bake, prepare food on hot stones’ > **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. \**✓ʔpy* v. ‘bake’ > Ugaritic, Old Aramaic *✓ʔpy* ∇, Hebrew *✓ʔpy* ∇ (perfect *הָפַךְ* *hāpā*) v. ‘bake’, Phoenician, Official Aramaic *✓ʔpy* id. (and/or ‘cook’), Jewish Aramaic *פּוּץ* *✓ʔpy* (pf. *פּוּץ* ~ *פּוּץ* *ʔpē*) v. ‘bake’, Syriac *✓ʔp* ∇ (perfect *ܥܦܐ* *ʔpā*) v. ‘bake, cook’, Arabic *مِيفَى* *mīfā-n* ‘bake-oven’, Akkadian *✓ʔpy/∇* (inf. *epû*) v. ‘bake’ || Chadic: West Chadic: Pero *ápò* v. ‘bake’ || ? **Indo-Eur.:** \**ʔHepH-* (unless it is \**sepH-*) v. ‘cook’ > Armenian *epʰe-m* id. || Greek *έψω* id. (so-present), part. *έψός* ‘baked’ || **Altaic:** Turkic \**äpʰ-* v. ‘bake (?)’ in Old Turkic *äp-mäk* ~ *äpäk* ‘bread’, Azeri *äppäk*, (dial.) *äpmäk* id., Volga Tatar *äpäy* id. || **Drau.** \**avi-* v. ‘be boiled, cooked’ > Tamil *av* i id., *avay* v. ‘cook, boil’, Malayalam *aviyuka* v. ‘boil on fire, be digested’.

[65] \*qUbž̌▽ (< \*qUpž̌▽?) 'food made of ground cereals', 'flour' (> 'bread') > **Kartvelian** \*qweza- 'loaf' > Old Georgian queza-y 'loaf of bread', Megrelian xozo 'oval loaf of cooked dough', xozo-kwari 'ceremonial cone-formed bread baked at the first Monday of Lent (with a wooden stick in it)' (Megrelian kwari is 'small loaf of bread') || **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. \*χubz- 'bread' > Arabic χubz- 'bread', χubzat- 'a bread baked in ashes', ✓χbz (past χabaza, present-future -χbiz-) v. 'make bread', Eastern Jibbali E χ̌z v. 'bake' (\*-b- > zero is regular), Mehri, Harsusi ✓χbz id., Ge'ez ✓χbz id. 'bake', χabz 'bread', χabast (pl. χabāwaz) 'bread' || **Altaic:** Tungusic \*upa 'flour; flat bread' > Solon uṣṣi: 'bread', Negidal, Naikhin Nanay opa, Ude, Bikin Nanay opa ~ ufa, Kur-Urmi Nanay ofa, Ude ufa, Ulcha upa 'flour', Orochi upa id., 'flat bread', Orok upa 'flour, flat bread, bread', Class. Manchu ufa 'wheat-flour, rice-flour', Sibe Manchu ʔufa: 'flour, meal', Jurchen ufa 'flour' ¶¶ The Tungusic cognate is valid only if there is a way of explaining the loss of \*ž̌ in Tungusic (or the change \*-bž̌- > Tungusic \*-p).

[66] \*ʔomśa 'meat' > **Uralic** \*omśa 'flesh, meat' > proto-Lappish \*ʔn̄čē 'flesh' > Norw. Lapp oaz̄iž̄e, Kildin Lapp ʔn̄č̄:č̄, Ter Lapp ʔn̄č̄:č̄e id. ||| Samoyedic \*ʔms̄a 'meat' > Tundra Nenets ʔam̄sa, Obdorsk dial. ʔam̄c̄ā, Forest Nenets ʔams̄ā, Nganasan ʔamsu, Somatu Enets uđa, Bay Nenets ossa 'meat', Taigi aṛca 'flesh\meat', Mator aṛca id., 'body', Taz Sölqup ap̄s̄i 'food' || **Ham.-Sem.:** ? Sem.: Arabic ʔāmiṣ-, ʔamīṣ- 'marinated raw meat; veal jelly' ¶ The emphatization of the final consonant is not yet clear ||| Egyptian sms 'piece of beef' (Illich-Svitych: partial reduplication of \*ʔms̄?) || **Indo-Eur.** \*mēms- 'meat' (< \*\*ʔmēms- [reduplicated stem]) > Old Indian mān̄'sa-, 'mās 'meat' ||| Armenian mis id. ||| Albanian (dial.) mish id. ||| Gothic mimz id. ||| Prussian mensā, Low Lithuanian meisa (Fraenkel: < \*mensā), Latvian mīesa || Slavic \*mešo > Old Church Slavonic **MACO** mešo, Serbo-Croatian mēso, Polish mięso, Russian 'мясо id. ||| Latin membrum 'limb' (< \*mēms-ro-) ||| Old Irish mír 'piece' (< 'piece of meat') (< \*mēms-ro-) ¶ The loss of the laryngeal \*ʔ in the initial clusters [\*ʔ + consonant] is regular (e.g., \*ʔs- > \*s in \*es-ti 'est' — \*s-onti 'sunt').

[67] \***g'u'3** ▽ 'intestines, pluck (as food)' > **Kartvelian** \***qwiʒ**]- 'liver' > Old Georgian **ϣwiʒl-**, Georgian **ϣviʒl-**, Megrelian \***qviʒil-** → Georgian **qviʒil-** 'of dark-violet colour', Megrelian **i-qviʒin-an-s** 'has unhealthy yellow complexion' (выглядит желто, болезненно), Svan **qwiʒe**, **quʒe** 'liver' || **Indo-European** \***kews-/kūs-** ≈ 'intestines, abdomen' > Old Indian **koṣṭha-** 'abdomen' || Greek **κύστις, -εως** 'bladder' || Welsh **cwthr** 'anus, rectum' (< **kusdʰro-**) || Slavic \***k+š-bka** 'gut' > Russian **киш'ка**, Ukrainian **кишка**, Polish **kiszka** 'gut' || **Altaic:** Tungusic \***ḵjɯḵa-** > Okhotsk Lamut **ɯḵa-** v. 'disembowel (a bear)', **ɯḵamɕin**, Ola Lamut **ɯḵimɕin**, Negidal **ɯddo-nin** 'pluck of a bear' || ?**φ** **Dravidian** \***kuṭ-** 'intestines' > Tamil **kuṭar**, **kuṭal** 'bowels, intestines, entrails', Malayalam **kuṭar**, **kuṭal** 'bowels', Kota **koṛṇ**, Toda **kw+ṛ** 'small intestine', Gondi **kuṇḍalī** 'a stomach of ruminants'.

[68] \***ʔayno** 'marrow, brain, soft fat of animals' ('to smear, anoint') > ?? **Indo-Eur.:** Narrow Indo-European \***ongʷ-** 'to smear', \***ongʷ-en-~\*ḡgʷ-en-** 'fat, grease' > Old Indian **añj-**, **a'nakti** (3 pl. **añ'janti**, part. pass. **ak'ta**) v. 'smear, anoint', **'ājyam** 'melted or clarified butter (used for oblations, for pouring into the holy fire at the sacrifice, and for anointing anything sacrificed or offered)' (< **ā + ajya** < \***ngʷyo-**) || Armenian **aucanem** 'I smear' || Latin **unguō / unctus** v. 'smear', Umbrian **umtu** 'unguito' || Prussian **anctan**, **ancte** 'butter' || **Ham.-Sem.:** Semitic: Ge'ez **ʔangʷaʃ** 'marrow, the soft fat of animals', Tigre **ʔəngəʃo**, Tigray **ʔangʷəʃ**, Amharic **angʷa** 'marrow' || ? Cushitic \***ḥangʷl-** 'brain' > East Cushitic \***ḥangul-** 'brain' > Saho **ḥangal**, pl. **ḥangul id.**, Afar **ḥángal** 'brains', Borana Oromo **əngu~əngō id.**, as well as probably Dahalo **ṣàni** 'head' | Agaw → Amharic **angoḷ** 'brains' and Tigre **ḥangal ḥangəl** (pl. **ḥanāgəl ḥanagəl**) → Bilin **hangʷel** (pl. **hanāgʷəl**) 'brains'; Awngi **angʷal id.** may be either a back borrowing from Ethiosemitic or an inherited Cushitic word | ? Cushitic → Mbugu **angálo** || Omotic: East Omoto: Kachama **ənḵā** 'head' || Central Chadic: Chibak **ʔəngàrə**, Margi **əngada** 'brain', Mboku **ānga**, Bana **yánga** 'head' || **Uralic** \***ayne** (or \***ayno**, as proposed by Collinder) > Finnish **ai vo(t)** 'brain, temple, temporal (bone)', Estonian **aju** 'brain', proto-Lappish \***vōjɲə** 'brain' > Norw. Lapp **vuoṛṇâš-**: pl. **vuoṛṇâšâk**, Lule-Lapp **vuoṛṇam ~**



ṽuoi'ŋam | proto-Mordvin \*oɣʷə > Moksha-Mordvin ɣŋ uy 'marrow, brain' || ? Hungarian aɣy 'brain, marrow' || ? **Altaic**: Turkic \*äŋ 'cheek' > Old Turkic äŋ id., Old Osman eŋ id., Azeri äŋg 'the sides of the lower jaw', etc.

[69] \*mag<sub>1</sub>i<sub>2</sub>za 'liver' > **Ham.-Sem.**: Egyptian myz.t 'liver (?)' > Demotic Egyptian myz 'liver' > Old Coptic **MAOYC** maʊs id. ||| North Omotic \*mayz- 'liver' > Bench māy 'heart, liver', She may 'liver', Chara mayya, Badditu, Kachama mayye, Gidicho māyye, Ganjula, Zayse, Zergulla maye, Male māyzi, mayz, Basketo māyʒz, Doka mayz 'liver' ¶¶ The origin of \*y instead of the expected guttural is not clear || **Uralic** \*maksa 'liver' > Finnish maksa, Estonian maks | proto-Lappish \*mōksē > South. Lapp müöksie, Ume-Lapp müeksē, Vefsen Lapp müök'si | Erzya-Mordvin makso, Moksha-Mordvin макса maksə | proto-Cheremis \*moks > Cheremis: Lowland and Highland Cheremis мокш mokš, Malmizh Cheremis moks | proto-Permian \*musk- > Ziryene mus / musk-, Votyak мус mus || proto-Ob-Ugric \*mʰʷəθ > proto-Vogul \*mʰyət / māyt- > Tavda Vogul mayət, Northern Vogul māyət; proto-Ostyak \*muʷəθ > Vakh Ostyak muʷəl, etc. | Hungarian máj id. ||| Samoyedic \*mʰtʰ id. > Tundra Nenets мыд, Obdorsk dial. mʰδ ʷ mūδ, Forest Nenets mʰtʰ; Nganasan 'mitə; Enets муго ʷ mudo; Taz Sölqup mʰtʰ, Tīm Sölqup mʰd; Kamassian mʰtʰ, Koibal мѣттѣ.

[70] \*h'a'ḲU 'soft parts of the animal's body (liver, marrow, suet)' > **Ham.-Sem.**: Sem. \*h'ḳy/ʷ > Arabic niqy- 'marrow', naqʷ- 'bone of the arm, one full of marrow', h'ḳy/ʷ v. 'extract marrow from a bone' || **Indo-Eur.** \*yegʷ-ṛ(t-) / gen. \*yegʷ-h-es 'liver' > Old Indian 'yagr̥t, gen. yag'naḥ, Persian žigar || Greek ἥπαρ / -ατος || Latin iecur / iecinoris || Baltic \*yeknā > Lithuanian (j)ėknos, (j)āknos, Old Lith. jeknas, Latvian pl. aknas, (dial.) jeknas, Prussian iagno || **Uralic**: Finno-Ugric \*h'okʰ|wɣ(-ʒɣ) > Ob-Ugric \*h'ōʷəʒ 'meat' > proto-Vogul \*h'āyā- > Tavda Vogul h'āw'í, Sosva Vogul h'ōw'í, etc.; proto-Ostyak \*h'ōy+ id. > Vakh Ostyak h'ōy+, etc. || **Altaic**: Turkic \*yagr+ 'suet, fat (of an animal)' > Old Turkic yaqr+ 'fat, suet' (meaning influenced by Turkic yāy 'fat'), Old Uighur yaqr+ ašl+ylar 'fat\suet eaters'.

[71] \*muṇa(-t|d∇) 'egg' > **Uralic** \*muṇa 'egg, testicle' > Finnish, Estonian muna id. | proto-Lappish \*monē > Norw. Lapp mâñne 'egg' | Erzya & Moksha Mordvin mona 'testicle' | Highland Cheremis мыны mānə, Lowland Cheremis muno 'egg', Birsk Cheremis muno id., 'testicle' || Ob-Ugric \*mōñ 'testicle' > proto-Vogul \*māñ id. > Tavda & Lower Lozva Vogul man id.; proto-Ostyak \*moñ 'penis' > Vakh Ostyak moñ id. | Hungarian (dial.) mony 'egg, testicle' ||| Samoyedic \*mṇā 'egg' > Nganasan mṇu, Enets mona, Kamassian munəj ~ mun'uj 'egg', Koibal муны 'egg', Taz Sölqup man' 'penis' || **Ham.-Sem.:** Chadic: possibly Musgu муṇ 'testicles' (after Rohlf's record of 1856), ? Girvidig Musgu mōhom id. || **Drav.** \*muṇṭ- ~ \*muṭṭ- 'egg' > Tamil муṇṭai ~ муṭṭai 'egg', Malayalam муṭṭa, моṭṭa, Kota моṭ, Toda муṭy, Kannada, Tulu моṭṭe id., Kodagu муṭṭe id., 'testis' || **Indo-Eur.** \*mond<sub>h</sub>- > Slavic \*mqd-o 'testicle' (dual \*mqd-ě) > Church Slavonic мѣдо mqdo, Bulgarian мѣдо (new orthography мѣдо), Serbo-Croatian múdo, Slovene módo, Old Czech múd, Czech moud, Old Polish mądo, mędo, Polish arch. mądo, Old Russian мѣдо mudo (dual мѣѣ mudě), Russian (dial.) му'до (old dual му'де), Ukrainian 'мудо id.

[72] ? \*ʔa|o'h|x i or \*ʔu|h|x i 'egg' (or 'white of egg') > **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. \*ʔawh- > Syro-Lebanese Arabic ܥܳܐܳܐܳܠܳܐ ʔawh- ~ ܥܳܐܳܐܳܠܳܐ ʔāh- 'white of egg' || **Indo-Eur.:** Narrow IE \*ou(y)o- 'egg' > Greek: Attic ὄον (< \*ōu(y)-om), Aeolic ὄον, Doric ὄον 'egg' || ? Old Persian xāya 'egg', ? Avestan ap-āvaaya- 'entmannt' (if < \*apa-āvaaya- 'without testicles') ||| Welsh wu, Old Cornish u 'egg' ||| Armenian zu (gen. zuoy) 'egg' ||| Latin ovum ||| proto-Germanic \*auya-m > Gothic \*addya (reconstructible from Crimean Gothic ada), Old High German ei, German Ei, Old Scandinavian egg (whence English egg) ||| Slavic \*aje id., (diminutive) \*ajьce id. > Serbo-Croatian jájе, Low Lusatian jajо, Polish jajе, Ukrainian (dial.) айо 'egg'; Old Church Slavonic аѣѣ ajьce, Bulgarian яй'це, (dial.) ай'це, Polish (arch. and dial.) jajce, jajco, Old Russian яѣѣ jaice id., Serbo-Croatian jájce id. (dimin.), Slovene jájce, Czech vejce, Russian яй'цо 'egg, testiculum' ||| **Altaic:** Old Japanese u 'egg' (Starostin, pers. comm., 1976).

[73] **\*K<sub>0</sub>lV** ‘(large) fish’ > **Ham.-Sem.**: East Cushitic: Afar kúllum, Somali kallūn ‘fish’, kallūm- ‘to catch fish’ ||| Chadic: Hausa kúlmá ‘(a kind of) large fish’ ||| ? Sem.: Jibbali (according to B. Thomas) kāl, Mehri (Thomas) kell ‘whale’ || **Uralic** \*kala ‘fish’ > Finnish, Estonian kala || proto-Lappish \*kōlē > Norw. Lapp guolle || Erzya & Moksha Mordvin kal || Cheremis kol ||| Ob-Ugric \*kūl > proto-Vogul \*kūl > Tavda Vogul kōl, Northern Vogul xūl; proto-Ostyak \*kul > Vakh Ostyak kul, etc. || Hungarian hal ||| Samoyedic \*kālā > Tundra Nenets халя, Obdorsk dial. хал’е, Forest Nenets kāḥ:ā, Nganasan kol̥, Somatu Enets kar̥e, Bay Enets kar̥e, Taz Sölqup q3l̥, Kamassian k’ōḥā, Koibal кола, Mator келе || **Altaic** \*k’olV ‘fish’ > Mong. \*qoli-sun ‘fish-skin’ > Class. Mong. qolisun, Halha холис(он) ||| Tungusic \*xol-sa ‘fish’ > Ewenki ołlo, Lamut olr̥, Negidal olo, Orochi okto, Ude oloho, Ulcha xolto(n-), Nanay xolto ||| [2] (a loanword?) Mong. \*qalimu ‘whale’ > Class. Mong. qalimu, Halha халим ‘whale’; Mong. ⇨ (possibly) Tungusic \*kalima ‘whale’ > Ewenki kalim ‘whale’, Ayan Ewenki kalim id., ‘ходовая рыба (shoals of fish moving into the rivers for spawning and caught by fishers)’, Lamut qalim, Negidal kalim, Orochi kalima ~ kālma, Ude kalima, Ulcha qalma, Orok, Nanay qalima, Class. Manchu qalimu ‘whale’ || **IE** \*k<sup>w</sup>ol- ‘(a kind of) large fish’ > Khotan Saka, Young Avestan kara, Sogdian krw крү ‘a monster fish’ ||| Germanic \*x<sup>w</sup>alaz ~ \*x<sup>w</sup>aliz ‘whale’ > Old Norse hvalr, Anglo-Saxon h<sup>w</sup>æl, English whale, Old High German wal, German Wal-fisch; Old High German \*h<sup>w</sup>alis > Middle High German wels > German Wels ‘sheat-fish, Silurus’, Germanic \*x<sup>w</sup>alirōn id. > Old High German hwelira ||| Prussian kalis ‘sheat-fish’ ||| ?? A possible compound \*Hs-k<sup>w</sup>al- may be represented by Greek [Hesychius] ἰσπαλος ‘fish’ and Latin squalus ‘(a kind of) large fish, Meersaugfisch?’ || **Drav.** \*kolli- ‘(a kind of) fish’ > Malayalam kolli, Tulu koleji id. ◇ The vowel \*a (for the expected \*o) in Uralic is obscure.

[74] **\*doTgiHU** ‘fish’ > **Indo-Eur.**: NaIE \*d<sup>h</sup>g<sup>h</sup>ū- ‘fish’ > Greek ἰχθῦς (< \*g<sup>h</sup>dhū- — metathesis from \*d<sup>h</sup>g<sup>h</sup>ū-) ||| Lithuanian žuvis, Latvian zivs, (dial.) zuvs, with a \*k-suffix: Prussian suckis, acc. pl. suckans ||| Armenian շուռ ¶ According to many scholars, the initial ʔ- in ἰχθῦς is of

prostetic origin; according to Frisk, Armenian -kn is a suffix || **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. \*<sup>l</sup>dag- or \*da<sup>l</sup>wag- ‘fish’ > Hebrew דָּג <sup>l</sup>dāḡ, Ugaritic dg ‘fish’; Middle Hebrew -dūḡ- v. ‘fish’, Biblical Hebrew דָּוֹג daw<sup>l</sup>wāḡ ‘fisher’ || **Uralic** \*totke ‘a fish of the genus *Cyprinus*’ > Estonian tōtkes ‘Schleie (linn), *Cyprinus tinca*’, Finnish totke (in the toponym Totkijärvi) | Erzya Mordvin tutko, Moksha Mordvin тутка tutka ‘*Cyprinus tinca*’ | Highland Cheremis tatъ, Malmyzh Cheremis toto id. || Tavda Vogul tãxt id. ȧ takt-kōl id. or ‘*Tinca vulgaris*’ | Hungarian tat-hal ‘a worthless fish; *Cyprinus tinca*, *Tinca vulgaris*’ ||| Samoyedic: Taz Sölqup tut+ ‘*Cyprinus carassius*’, Turukhan Sölqup tūt+, Ketj Sölqup tutto, Tim Sölqup tutä id. || **Altaic** \*dōḡki ‘fish’ > Tungusic \*zōḡlyi ‘a species of fish (*Salmo lenoc* or sim.)’ > Nanay žol, Ude žüi-so, Negidal joyo ‘*Salmo lenoc*’, Negidal joyolan ‘golyan (sp. of fish)’ ||| Mong. \*ziga-sun ‘fish’ > Middle Mongolian žigasun, Class. Mong. žigasun, Halha-Mong. zagas, Kalmuck zaṡṡṡṡ, Dongxiang žayasun, Dagur žause, Shira-Yugur žayasən, Monguor žäḡas ||| proto-Japanese \*(d)íwua ‘fish’ > Old Japanese iwō, Japanese dialects: Tokyo ùō, Kagoshima íwō, Ryukyu dialects: Shuri íyu, Nakasuji ɣyú, Hateruma yú, Yonakuni ìyú.

[75] \*mEn|ñi ‘(a kind of) fish’ > **Indo-Eur.** \*m<sub>o</sub>ni- ‘(a kind of) fish’ > Greek μαύνη ‘a small sea-fish, which, like our herring, was salted’ (→ Latin maena id.) → μαυνός ‘sprat’ || Slavic \*mьnъ ‘burbot, Lota lota’ > Serbo-Croatian (dial.) mǎnj, Czech meň, Old Russian МЕНЬ мень, Russian мень id. | ?? Baltic (der.): Lithuanian mėnkė ‘cod’ (unless a fem. form of the adj. mėnkas ‘poor, small’), Latvian meņca, meņce ‘cod’ || ? Gmc (der.): Old High German muniwa, Anglo-Saxon myne > English minnow ‘*Phoxinus*’ || **Drav.** \*mīṇ- ‘fish’ > Tamil mīṇ, Malayalam, Kannada mīṇ, Kota, Toda, Gadba, Gondi, Konda mīṇ, Kodagu miṇ, Tulu mīṇ, Telugu mīṇu, Parji mīṇi, Pengo, Manda min, Kui, Kuwi mīṇu, Malto mīṇu; Drav. → Old Indian mīṇa- id. || ?? **Uralic:** Finno-Ugric \*mäñ > Skolt Lapp: Paatsjöki dial. māññi, Suonikylä dial. māñe’k ‘*Coregonus lavaretus* (big white-fish)’.

[76] \*p<sub>1</sub>pay ▽ ‘(a kind of) fish’ > ? **Indo-Eur.** \*peysk(0)-/\*pisk- ‘fish’ > Latin piscis || Gothic fisks, Old Norse fiskr, Old High German, Anglo-Saxon fisc, German Fisch, English fish || Old Irish Tasc (< \*peyskos) (/ gen. ēisc) ‘fish’ || Slavic \*pisk-arjъ ~ \*pisk-orjъ > Russian пи́скарь (modern orthography: пескарь) ‘gudgeon’, Serbo-Croatian pīskor ‘muræna’, Slovene piškur ‘lampren (*Lampetra*)’, Czech piskoř, Polish piskorz, High Lusatian piskor ‘loach (*Misgurnus*)’ || ? **Uralic** \*pay ▽ ‘(a species of) fish’ > ? Votyak paya ‘bream (*Abramis*)’ || ? Tavda Vogul pail, payil ‘*Carassius*’ || ? Samoyedic: Nen paja, paiha ‘*Salmo peljet* (a fish)’, Tundra Nenets pāykhā ‘сырок, пелядь (a kind of *Salmonidae*)’, Bay Enets faeha ‘*Salmo peljet*’, Nganasan faʔūka ‘Muksun’ (a fish) || **Drav.** \*payy- ‘(a kind of) fish’ > Malayalam payyatti ‘a fish’, Tulu paḷyḷə ‘a kind of fish’.

[77] \*tūr ▽ ‘hard-roe’ > **Uralic** \*tūr ▽ > Samoyedic \*tirämä ~ \*tūrämä ‘hard-roe’ > Tundra Nenets тиребя, Forest Nenets t̪iɖɖ̥iɖ̥m̥iɖ̥, Nganasan t̪iʔrimi, čirimi, Somatu Enets t̪iʔrê, Bay Enets t̪iʔrê, čirê, čiri, Taz Sölqup t̪ir, T̪im Sölqup t̪êʔreʔb̥, Kamassian t̪ʔür̥m̥ɛ, Koibal турмэ, Taigi türmjä, Mator türma, турмэ, Karagas dúrmjä || **Altaic** \*tūr̥iʔ ‘hard-roe’ > Mong. \*türi-sün > Class. Mong. t̪üri-sün, Halha түрц, Kalmuck türş, Buryat түрһэ(н) id. || Tungusic \*tiḷ̥re-kse id. > Ewenki t̪ir̥3-ks̥3 ɖ t̪ir̥3k̥s̥3 ɖ t̪ir̥3h̥3, Solon, Ulcha turs̥3, ? Class. Manchu cerguwe ~ cerhuwe.

[78] \*k̥ʔür̥w̥ ▽ or \*k̥ʔür̥w̥E ‘hard roe, spawn’ > **Indo-Eur.** \*krek- ‘fish eggs, frog spawn’ > Old Norse hrogn, Old High German (h)rogan, rogen, German Rogen, Middle English row, English roe || Lithuanian kurkulaĩ, Latvian kuŗkulis ‘frog spawn’ || Slavic \*krekъ ~ \*krěkъ ~ \*krěkъ ‘frog spawn’ > Slovene krék, žabo-kréčina, krāk, Old Polish krzek, Russian (dial.) крек, крёк, кряк id.; in Slavic there is contamination with the onomatopoeitic imitation of croaking, whence the unexpected variations in the form || **Altaic**: Azeri kürü ‘hard-roe’ || Tungusic \*xurbe ‘to spawn’ > Ewenki irb̥3 ‘spawning. spawn’, Ulcha xulbi-, Nanay xurb̥3- ɖ xurbu- v. ‘spawn’ || ? **Kartv.**: Georgian kvirita ‘hard roe,

soft roe', kviriti 'spawn of fish/frogs' ¶ The lack of glottality in the initial consonant is irregular.

[79] \***madu** 'honey' > **Indo-Eur.** \*medʰu- 'honey' > Old Indian madhu- 'honey, mead', Avestan māδu 'wine made of berries' || Greek μέθυ 'wine' || Old Irish mid (gen. medo), Cornish medd, Breton mez 'mead' || Old Norse mjǫðr, Anglo-Saxon meoðo, English mead, Old High German metu, German Met 'mead' || Lithuanian medùs, Prussian meddo 'honey', Latvian mēdus id., 'mead' | Slavic \*medь 'honey' > Old Church Slavonic медъ, Bulgarian, Ukrainian мед, Czech, Slovak med id., Serbo-Croatian mēd, Polish miód, R мёд id., 'mead'; the ancient root-final \*u is preserved as \*v in derived and compound words (as Church Slavonic медвѣнъ, Russian мед'вяный 'made of honey', Slavic \*medvēdь 'bear' ['honey-eater'], etc.) || Tocharian B mit 'honey' || **Drav.** \*mat̪t̪o 'honey, sweetness' > Tamil mat̪t̪u 'honey, toddy, sweet juice', Malayalam mat̪u 'sweetness, honey', mat̪t̪u 'nectar', Tulu mit̪t̪i 'sweetness' || **Ham.-Sem.:** East Chadic: Mokilko máddé 'bee, honey' ||| Omotic \*mat̪/ṭ/Ḷ- 'bee, honey' > Shinasha maḱḱa 'honey', Kaffa māṭo 'bee', Mocha maṭi 'bee, wasp', Anfilla maḱḱo ~ maṣṣo, Zayse, Dache maḱḱ 'bee', Gamu macci, Wolayta matta, Chara meca id.

## 6. Technological activities

The information provided by the language is both rich and very poor. On one hand, we know two dozens of words for 'cutting', but on the other hand, we have no idea about the original semantic difference between them. The precious information about different ways, directions and aims of cutting has not been preserved by the language. There are many words for 'bending', 'twisting', 'boring/drilling', 'barking/flaying/peeling', 'rubbing', 'scratching', etc., but the specific meaning of each one has been lost. Therefore I do not see any use of quoting the dictionary entries for all of those words (which would have taken as much space as the rest of this book).

What is more important is the general impression concerning the industrial activities of the proto-Nostratic epoch. From popular literature on the 'Stone Age' archæology the unprofessional reader (like myself) may draw a conclusion that the main materials of industry of the palaeolithic,

mesolithic and neolithic were **stones**. But in the light of the linguistic data the situation looks different. Alongside with *flints* (\*č'ũ'r∇, ?\*buR∇) and other *stones* (\*ti|e\_?a\_ĩo, \*kiw\_∇\_hE), no less important were other materials:

- (a) *wood* (\*boru|y\_∇ 'trunk', 'log', \*č\_∇ 'stalk, stick', \*k\_0ž\_∇ 'tree trunk', \*kañ\_∇(-b\_∇) 'stalk, trunk', 'log'), *poles* (\*ž\_uR\_∇ 'pole, long piece of wood')
- (b) *rods* (see above \*k\_ā\_∇ 'to wicker, wattle', \*k\_ā\_∇-L\_∇ 'wattle-fence'[22]),
- (c) *sinew, tendons* (\*ž\_ĩr\_y\_ũ|ũ, cf. above \*č\_ĩ\_ā\_ĩ\_ũ' [25], \*ya\_ũ\_ũ\_∇ [26], \*ño\_y\_ĩ\_1E [28]),
- (d) *thorns* (\*ʔežek\_∇ 'thorn, hook'),
- (e) *teeth, claws* used as *hooks* (\*k\_ĩ\_ā'\_k\_ũ\_∇),
- (f) *bark* (\*to\_ĩ\_∇, \*k\_ā\_ĩ\_ĩ\_ĩ\_ĩ\_∇, \*k\_ā\_yer\_∇), *leather and hides* (\*t\_ũ\_ũ\_ũ\_ā, \*t\_ā\_ũ\_ũ\_ā and others, as well as words for *skin or bark*, such as \*k\_ā\_ĩ\_ũ', \*k\_ũ\_ũ\_∇ and \*k\_ũ\_ž\_∇). There is a word for *piece of leather, used especially as footwear* (\*k\_∇R\_∇H\_ĩ\_ĩ\_∇).

There is a word denoting a *sharp piercing tool* (\*p\_ĩ\_x\_ũ\_y\_ā) without special reference to its material (bone, wood, stone).

[80] \*č'ũ'r\_∇ 'flint-stone, knife' (coalesced in some languages with \*č\_ā\_∇ 'to cut') > **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. \*θ\_ūrar- ~ \*θ\_ĩr\_ā\_r- > Arabic ظِرّ ِθ\_ĩrr-, ظِرّ ِθ\_ūrar- 'sharp stone that can cut as a knife', Akkadian š\_ũr\_ũ(m) 'obsidian, flint-stone', Hebrew צֶרֶךְ čor 'herēb 'blade of a sword' ('herēb 'sword') ||| Coptic: Ⲭⲱⲡ ⲩⲟⲣ, Ⲭⲉⲡ- ⲩⲉⲣ- 'to sharpen, whet' ||| ? Berber \*ž\_ũr\_ũ/ā 'stone, rock' > Kabyle a-ž\_ũ 'stone (material); a stone, rock', Ahaggar Twareg a-ž\_ā\_ũ 'muraille rocheuse', Tamazight a-ž\_ũ (pl. i-ž\_ā) 'rock, large stone', ti-ž\_ā 'small stone'; in Berber the root coalesced with the cognate of Sem. \*θ\_ūrr- 'rock' (unless the latter belongs to the etymon in question, too) ||| Chadic: West Chadic: Hausa č\_ũr\_ā 'handleless knife or sword' ||| Central Chadic: Gude č\_ĩ\_ũ\_ā, Fali of Muchella č\_ũ\_ũ, Fali of Bwagira č\_ĩ\_ũ\_ā 'hoe' ||| **Altaic:** Tungusic \*č\_ũ\_ũ\_-k\_ā\_ā(n-) 'knife' > Solon č\_ĩ\_ũ\_ũ\_ā: 'knife', Ulcha č\_ũ\_ũ\_ā(n-), č\_ũ\_ũ\_ũ, Nanay č\_ũ\_ũ\_ũ č\_ĩ\_ũ\_ũ 'knife used by women in carving ornaments' ||| **Drav.** \*č\_ĩ\_č\_ĩ\_ā\_ā 'small chisel' > Kannada c\_ĩ\_ā\_ā\_ā, c\_ĩ\_ā\_ā\_ā, j\_ĩ\_ā\_ā\_ā 'a small chisel, esp. used in cutting metals', Telugu c\_ĩ\_ā\_ā\_ā\_ā\_ā 'a small chisel'.

[81] ? \*buR\_∇ 'flint' (> 'to cut\carve with a flint') > **Ham.-Sem.:** Cushitic: Beja ber'rawe 'flint' ||| Sem. \*b\_ũ\_ũ\_ > Arabic b\_ũ\_ũ\_ (past بَرَى barā, present-future -b\_ũ\_ũ\_) 'cut', بَرَاة barāt- 'a knife for cutting\trimming

wood\arrows' || **Altaic**: Tungusic \*bur▽ 'flint' > Ewenki buru, Solon boro, Lamut bur, Orochi bu, burakta, Ude bŭ, Ulcha, Orok buraqta, Nanay boraqta 'flint', Negidal burokta 'amber' || ??? **Indo-Eur.** \*b<sup>h</sup>er- 'mit einem scharfen Werkzeug bearbeiten, ritzen, schneiden' > Persian bur(r)īdan 'to cut', Avestan tiži-bāra- 'sharp-edged' (of a knife, etc.) || Armenian bah 'spade', gen. -i (< \*b<sup>h</sup>ṛ-ti-) || ?? Middle Irish bern, berna 'Kluft, Schlitz' || Slavic \*borna 'harrow' > Bulgarian бра'на, Serbo-Croatian (dial.) brāna, Slovene brāna, Czech pl. brány, Russian боро'на 'harrow', Serbo-Croatian brāna 'a kind of harrow'.

[82] \*ti|e<sub>L</sub>pa<sub>J</sub>íŋ (or \*tū<sub>L</sub>pa<sub>J</sub>í▽) 'stone, heap of stones' > **Altaic** \*tiŋŋíŋa~\*tiŋŋáŋa 'stone' > Hunnic (O. Pritsak's reconstruction) \*tiāŋ 'stone' ||| Turkic \*t<sub>ŋ</sub>āŋí id. > Chuvash čul & čol 'id.', Narrow Turkic \*tāš > Old Turkic tāš, Turkish taş 'stone', İçel Turkish daşagır 'stony land', Azeri, Salar daš, Türkmen dāš, Tuva даш tāš, Yakut tās 'stone' ||| Mongolic \*cilaḡun 'stone' > Middle Mongolian čilaḡun, Class. Mong. cilaḡun, Halha cuŋū, Kalmuck čolūn, Dagur čolŋ ¶ The voicelessness of the initial consonant \*c- (for the expected voiced \*ɟ- < A \*t<sub>ŋ</sub>-) still defies explanation ||| Tungusic \*ɟŋla 'stone' > Ewenki, Solon, Negidal, Orok joŋŋ, Lamut joŋ, Orochi, Ude, Nanay, Ulcha ʒoŋŋ 'stone' ||| Korean: Middle Korean tŏr(h), Phyöngyang and Seoul Korean tŏl, Kyöngsando dial. tŏl, Hamgyöngdo dial. tŏl ||| proto-Japanese (according to Starostin) \*<sub>L</sub>d<sub>J</sub>ísì 'stone' > Old Japanese isagwo 'sand', Japanese: Tokyo dial. ísí, Kagoshima dial. íś, Hateruma (Ryukyu Islands) íśì 'stone' || **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. \*till- (~\*\*tīl-~\*\*tall-) 'mound, heap of stones' > Hebrew tel, till- 'mound, hill, heap of stones', Jewish Aramaic tel, till-ā 'heap of stones, mound', Syriac tēll-ā 'mound, hill, heap', Arabic tall- 'hill, heap', Akkadian till-, tīl- 'mound' || **Kartv.** \*<sub>L</sub>ta<sub>L</sub>]- > Georgian taŋ-i 'flint, fragment of a tooth' || **Drav.** \*caŋl- 'broken stone, (stone) chip' > Tamil caŋli 'stone chips, pieces of glass', Malayalam, Tulu caŋli 'chip, potsherd', Kannada jaŋli 'broken stone\metal', Tulu jaŋli 'broken stone', Telugu jaŋli 'road metal, broken stone', Parji ɟaŋub 'stone chips' ◇ The formula \*ti|e<sub>L</sub>pa<sub>J</sub>íŋ reflects two alternative hypotheses: 1) the reconstruction \*ti|e<sub>L</sub>paíŋ presupposes contraction of a Nostr. disyllable in Altaic: Nostr. \*ti|e<sub>L</sub>paíŋ > Altaic \*t<sub>ŋ</sub>āŋí▽



~ \*tjṓǀṽ, 2) the reconstruction \*tjḗlō presupposes a ‘vowel breaking’: \*tjḗlō > Altaic \*tjṓǀǎ’ (> \*tjṓǀǎ ~ \*tjǎ́ǀṽ). The first alternative has an advantage: it accounts for the Kartv. and Drav. reflexes (Kartv. glottalized \*t̥- < \*t̥- < \*ti̥-, Drav. \*ɕa- < \*tja- < \*ti̥a-, the vowel \*-a- both in Drav. and Kartv.) and for the length of the Altaic vowel (due to contraction of a disyllable), while the second alternative hypothesis presupposes rejection of both the Kartv. and Drav. roots and fails to account for the Altaic vowel length.

[83] \*kiwǀṽ, hE ‘stone’ > **Ham.-Sem.:** Chadic \*✓kw (or \*kʷṽ?) ‘stone’ > Central Chadic: Matakam kʷaʔ, Mafa kʷâ | Buduma kâú, Affade kaɔ | Nzangi kʷǎǎ || ? Sem.: Ge’ez kʷakʷaḥ (pl. kawākāḥ) ‘stone, rock, stony ground’, Arabic kāḥ-, kīḥ- ‘rugged face of a mountain, side of a valley consisting of the hardest and roughest stone’ (in the prehistory of Arabic \*ṽṽṽ > ṽ) || **Kartv.** \*kwa- ‘stone’ > Old Georgian kva-y, Georgian kva, Megrelian, Laz kua ‘stone’ || **Uralic:** Finno-Ugric \*kiwe ‘stone’ > Finnish, Estonian kiwi | Erzya & Moksha Mordvin кеб кев | Cheremis kü ɛ küy | Permian \*ki ‘stone, millstone’ > Votyak kö кэ, Southwestern Votyak kô ‘millstone’, Ziryene iz-ki id. || Ob-Ugric \*kǎw ‘stone’ > proto-Vogul \*kǎw > Konda & Pelimka Vogul kǎw, etc.; proto-Ostyak \*köy ‘stone’ > Vakh Ostyak köy, etc. | Hungarian kő (accus. követ) id.

[84] \*boruǀṽ ‘trunk’ (‘log’) > **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. \*burf- ~ \*burāf- ‘reed’ > Ge’ez bārē ‘reed’, Akkadian burû ‘reed mat’ (> Syriac būrā id.) || **Indo-Eur.** \*bʰruH- / ~ bʰreHw- ‘log’ > Old Norse brū ‘bridge’, bryggja ‘landing-place, embankment’, Old High German brucca, Anglo-Saxon brycg ‘bridge’, Bavarian German Bruck ‘Bretterbank am Ofen’, Swiss German brügi ‘Holzgerüst’, German Brücke, English bridge || Gaulish brīva ‘bridge’ (< \*bʰrēwa) || proto-Slavic \*brъvъ, \*brъvъ ‘trunk, log’ > Bulgarian (dial.) брѣв ~ брѣф ‘a tree used as a bridge over a stream\river; footbridge’, Serbo-Croatian брѣв ‘footbridge, log used as a footbridge’, Slovene брѣв ‘footbridge, gangway, gangplank’, Old Russian, Church Slavonic брѣвь, брѣвь ‘log’, бѣрѣвь ‘raft, embankment’, proto-Slavic derived stem \*brъvъno ~ \*brъvъnъ ~ \*brъvъna ‘log’ > Old Church Slavonic

**БРЪВЪНО**, Bulgarian бръв'но, 'бървен, Russian брев'но id. || **Uralic:** Finno-Ugric \*pora 'logs used as a raft or a bridge, a board' > proto-Lappish \*p̄rēv̄ē > Norw. Lapp boar're 'logs placed together to form a primitive bridge over a river or lake; a board used as a floating raft', Lule Lapp parrē 'raft', Ter Lapp poarrew 'board (Brett)' || Permian \*pur 'raft, ferry' > Votyak pur id., Ziryene pur 'raft', Ziryene (dial.) pur 'raft, ferry' || Ob-Ugric \*p̄rā 'raft' > proto-Vogul \*p̄ārā > Tavda Vogul parā, Sosva Vogul p̄ra id.; proto-Ostyak \*p̄āra > Vasyugan Ostyak p̄āra id., etc. || ?? **Drav.** \*parūinc- 'hilt of a sword' > Tamil par iñcu, Malayalam pr iññu, Telugu par ūzu id.

[85] ? \*čU|∇ 'stalk, stick' > **Kartv.** \*čwēl- 'stalks, straw' ('staff') > Old Georgian čwēl-i 'stalk(s)', Georgian čvēl-i 'chaff', Megrelian ču- id., Laz ču- 'straw (stalks)', o-čval-e 'мякичник' || **Ham.-Sem.:** ? Sem. \*ṣ̌ill- or \*ṣ̌ull- 'thorn' > Akkadian ṣ̌illum ~ ṣ̌ullum 'thorn', 'pin, needle'. A deglottalized variant \*salw- ~ \*sall- ~ \*sull- is suggested by Bibl. Hebrew sallōn 'thorn', Jewish Aramaic סַלְוָא sil'wā, Syriac sal'w-ā id. and Arabic sullā?- 'épinés du palmier' || Berber \*-ziḷy- or \*-zuḷy- 'branch' > Ahaggar Twareg a-ḡal (pl. i-ḡl-ān) 'branch', East Tawellemmet a-ḡal (pl. i-ḡal-an), Tayert a-ḡal (pl. aḡl-an), Ghat aḡal (pl. iḡlan), Tashelhit ta-ḡaly-īt (pl. ti-ḡaly-ā) id. || **Ural.:** Finno-Ugr. \*čū|i|∇ ~ \*čū|∇ 'stalk, stick' > Lowland Chreremis чылык čылык 'a thin twig\rod used to clear pipes', чылым čылым 'pipe', Highland Cheremis цы́лык cələk 'a pipe of the Cheremis Dudelsack' || proto-Ostyak \*čō|∇ > Kazim Ostyak šw̄l̄i 'Knüttel beim šō'r-Spiel, Knüttel zum Schleudern von Zirbelzapfen', šw̄l̄w 'Knüttel beim šō'r-Spiel; eigens zum Abschalen von Zirbelzapfen hergestellter Stock' || **Altaic:** Tungusic: Solon cōl̄cō'xu 'transverse perches of the roof' ('поперечные жерди на крыше') || **Drav.** \*cu|ikk- 'stick' > Tamil cu|ikk- 'pikestaff, sharp-pointed stick carried by travellers', Kannada cu|ike 'a stout stick to beat cotton with'.

[86] \*koʒi∇ 'tree trunk' > **Kartv.:** Georgian koʒ-i 'beam' || **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. \*guḏi∇i- ~ \*giḏi∇i- 'tree trunk' > Hebrew 'gezaṣ ~ 'gezaṣ, Syriac guḏi'-ā, Arabic ḡiḏi- id. || Berber: Tashelhit aḡb̄žžā (pl. iḡb̄žwān) 'trunk' ¶¶ **Ham.-Sem.** \*g- < \*k- by assimilation? || **Altaic:** Mong.

\*qozuḷigula > Class. Mong. qozugula ~ qozigula, Halha-Mong. хозууль 'tree trunk, stump'.

[87] \*kañ∇(-b∇) 'stalk, trunk' ('log') > **Indo-Eur.** \*<sup>o</sup>genb<sup>h</sup>-/\*gnob<sup>h</sup>- 'peg, stick, piece of wood' > [1] Germanic \*kamb-, \*kumb- > Old High German kembil 'Fesselblock', kamp 'compes', Old Norse kumbr 'wood-block', English chump id. (ch- due to the influence of chop), Norwegian (dial.) kump 'Klumpen'; [2] Germanic \*knab-, \*knabb-, \*knap-, \*knapp- 'peg, stick' (→ 'penis' → 'boy') > German (dial.) Knabe 'Stift, Bolzen', Old High German knabe, German Knabe, Anglo-Saxon cnafa 'boy'; Old Norse kneffil 'pole, peg, stick' ('Stange, Pfahl, Stock'), Middle Low German knevel 'short and thick transom (kurzes, dickes Querholz)', Swedish (dial.) knavel 'thin pole' || **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. \*kann- ≈ 'stem', 'base' > Akkadian kannu 'slip (of a plant), stalk, shoot (of a tree)', Syriac kan'n-ā 'stem (of a tree), stalk, root (of a plant)', Jewish Aramaic kan'n-ā, Mandaic kana 'base, fundament', ? Biblical Hebrew קַנַּן ken 'base, pedestal' (the vowel e is mysterious), Tigre ካኑት kan-ət (pl. ካኑካኑኑ) 'rowing-pole' ¶ There is probably contamination of the Sem. word in question with another word, meaning ≈ 'place' ||| Cushitic: Agaw \*kan- 'tree' > Bilin, Khamir, Kwara kana, Awngi kani || **Drav.:** [1] Drav. \*kaññ- 'sprout, shoot' > Tamil kaṇṇi id., Malayalam kaṇṇi 'shoot of betel vines' ||| [2] Drav. \*kāmp- 'stalk, trunk' (< Nostr. \*kañ∇(-b∇)) > Tamil kāmpu 'bamboo; flower-stalk, handle, shaft', Malayalam kāmpu 'bamboo; stem, stalk', Kota ka·v 'handle', Toda kōf 'hollow stem, handle of tool', Kannada kāmu, kāvū, Telugu kāma 'stem, stalk, handle', Gadba kāmē 'handle of a spoon', kāme 'handle of ladle', kanve stick', Kodagu ke·mbi 'bamboo *Oxytenanthera monostigma*', Kuwi kamba & kām̐ba 'handle' ||| [3] Drav. \*kañ∇kk- 'stick' > Kota kañk 'thin dry sticks', Kannada kaṇike, kaṇuku 'stalk of millet', kaṇḍike 'stalk, stem', Tulu kaṇaku 'firewood', Telugu kaṇika 'stick', ? Kuwi kandi 'stick, twig', Kurukh kaṅk 'wood, timber', Malto kanku 'wood' || **Uralic:** Finno-Ugric \*kanta 'stump of a tree' (→ 'base') > Finnish kanta 'ground, base, heel', Estonian kand (gen. kanna) 'heel', Finnish kanto, Estonian kand (gen. kannu) 'stump' | proto-Lappish \*kōntjy 'stump' > Norw. Lapp guod'do id., Lule Lapp kuottōi id.,

‘windfallen tree’, Kildin Lapp  $k\bar{u}\bar{3}nd\bar{u}$  ‘windfallen tree’ || Erzya Mordvin  $kando$ , Moksha Mordvin  $kanda$  ‘(wind)fallen tree’ || Ob-Ugric  $*k\bar{t}nt\bar{\nabla}$  > proto-Vogul  $*k\bar{t}nt(\bar{\nabla})$  ‘a beam, serving as the vertical support of a storehouse’ > Pelimka Vogul  $k\bar{3}nt$ , Upper Lozva Vogul  $x\bar{a}nta$ ; proto-Ostyak  $*kant$  ‘horizontal beam in a storehouse’ > Vasyugan Ostyak  $kant$ .

[88]  $*\check{3}uR\bar{\nabla}$  ‘pole, long piece of wood’ > **Ham.-Sem.:** Egyptian  $z\check{3}w$ ,  $z\check{3}y\bar{y}$  ‘Balken’, Demotic Egyptian  $sy$ , Coptic  $soi$  ‘poutre’ ||| Berber  $*\check{z}rr$  ‘branch, cluster’ > Ghadamsi  $ta-zrira$  ‘branchette porte-fleur’, Tamazight  $a-zrur$  ‘grappe’, ?  $ta-zra$  ‘collier’, ? Kabyle  $a-zrar$  id. || **Kartv.**  $*\check{3}war-$  ‘pole’ > Old Georgian  $\check{3}uar-$ , Georgian  $\check{3}var-$  ‘cross’, Megrelian  $\check{3}gun\check{3}g-$  ‘pole (used as a prop for vine), stamen’, Atinuri Laz  $mzgu\check{3}-$  ‘pole, thorn’ || **Indo-Eur.**  $*swer-/^{o}sur-$  ‘pole’ > Old Indian  $^{s}varu-h$  ‘sacrificial post, stake, long piece of wood’ || Greek  $\epsilon\rho\mu\alpha$  ‘prop, support’, Homeric Greek accus.  $\epsilon\rho\mu\acute{\iota}v-\alpha$  ‘best-post’ || Old High German  $swir\bar{o}n$  ‘bepfählen’, Middle High German  $swir$  ‘Uferpfahl’, Swiss German  $Schwiren$  ‘pole’, Anglo-Saxon  $swier$ ,  $swior$  ‘post, wooden pillar’ || Latin  $surus$  ‘branch, pole’ || ?? Latvian  $sv\bar{e}re$  ‘Ziehbalken beim Brunnen’ (contamination with the root of  $sv\bar{e}r-t$  ‘to raise with a lever’) || ?? **Altaic:** Mongolic: Class. Mong.  $zoruga$  ‘arrow with a horn head’.

[89]  $*\check{3}ir\bar{y}u\bar{u}$  ‘vein, sinew’ > **Kartv.**  $*\check{3}ar\bar{y}w-$  ‘vein, sinew’ > Old Georgian  $\check{3}ar\bar{y}vi$  ‘sinew’, Georgian  $\check{3}ar\bar{y}vi$  ‘vein’, Megrelian  $\check{3}er\bar{y}vi$ , Svan  $\check{3}\bar{a}r\bar{y}-$  id. || **Indo-Eur.**  $*ser(w)-$  ‘vein, thread’, ‘to string, join in a string’ > Old Indian  $sarat$  ‘thread’,  $sarab\bar{h}$  ‘string’, Avestan  $hara$  ‘mountain range’, Persian  $h\bar{a}r$  ‘a string or garland of beads, etc.’ || Tocharian A  $sar-$  ‘vein’ || Latin  $servia$  ‘garland’ || **Altaic**  $*sirw^{u}$  > Mongolic  $*sirb\bar{u}-s\bar{u}n$  ‘sinew, tendon’ > Middle Mongolian  $\check{3}irb\bar{u}s\bar{u}n$  ‘tendon, sinew’, Class. Mong.  $sirb\bar{u}s\bar{u}n$ , Halha-Mong.  $\omega\bar{e}p\bar{b}\bar{a}c$ , Kalmuck  $\omega\bar{y}p\bar{y}c\bar{h}$  ‘nerve, sinew, tendon; fibre, filament’, Buryat  $\omega\bar{y}p\bar{b}\bar{a}h\bar{a}(h)$  ‘tendon’, Ordos  $\check{3}\bar{ö}rw\bar{ö}s\bar{u}$ , Monguor  $\check{3}bu\bar{3}$  ‘nerve, muscle, fibre, filament’ ||| Tungusic  $*sire-$ ,  $*sire-kte$  ‘sinew, thread’ > Ewenki  $sir\bar{3}kt\bar{3}$  ‘sinew, vein, sinew-fibre’, Solon  $\check{3}iritt\bar{3}$ , Negidal  $siy\bar{3}kt\bar{3}$ , Ude  $sik\bar{3}kt\bar{3}$ , Ulcha, Nanay  $sir\bar{3}kt\bar{3}$  ‘thread’; Ewenki  $sir\bar{3}n$ , Arman Lamut  $sir\bar{3}n$  ‘thread of horse hair’, Negidal  $siy\bar{3}n$

‘thread’ ||| ? Korean: Old Korean (11th c.) sir| ‘thread’, Korean sir id. ||  
 ??? **Ham.-Sem.:** South Cushitic: Iraqw dēṣarāmo ‘root, sinew’ ◇ The  
 apparently irregular initial \*s- in IE (for the expected \*l- from \*ǵ-) is  
 accounted for by the IE law of \*l̄ r-incompatibility: in the presence of a \*r  
 the expected initial \*l- is replaced by \*s-, i. e. \*ǵ-...r > IE \*s-...r. A similar  
 law in Altaic seems to be responsible for the initial Altaic \*s-.

[90] **\*režekU** ‘thorn, hook’ (< ‘tooth’) > **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. \*šikk(-at)-  
 ‘thorn’, ‘pin, nail’ > Biblical Hebrew šēk (pl. šik’kīm) ‘thorn’, Arabic šikk-  
 at- ‘weapon, edge’, Jewish East Aramaic sik’k-ā, sikk-āṭ-ā ‘pin, nail’,  
 Akkadian šikk-at-ū(m) ‘point, Spitze’ (aphaeresis pS \*šikk- < \*ǵšikk-,  
 like in pS \*l̄p- ‘mouth’ < \*ǵap-, cp. Cushitic \*ǵap- ‘mouth’) ||| Cushitic  
 \*ǵšikk- ‘tooth’ > South Cush.: Kwadza išikuko, pl. išikwa, Asa liga, Mbugu  
 iṛīke id. ||| East Cush. \*ǵilk- id. > Saho ik-o, Somali ilig, pl. ilk-o, Rendille  
 ilaḥ, pl. ilk-o, Baiso ilk-o (pl.?), Elmolo ilk-o?, Arbore ilk-o, ilkwa id.,  
 Oromo ilk-āni ‘teeth’, Konso ilk-itta, Gidole ilh-itt, ilh-a, Gawwada ílg-e,  
 Harso ilgakk, Sidamo hink-o, Alaba inḵ-u, Kambatta ink-e, Hadiya inḵ-ē,  
 Burji irḵ-ā id. | Agaw \*əRk- id. (\*R < Cush. \*l̄ and \*r) > Bilin ʔərkwī,  
 Khamir erəkʷ, Kwara yerkw, Kemant ərku, Awngi ərkwí id. ||| Beja  
 ayəkʷ ‘a front tooth’ ||| **Altaic** \*ēlku ‘hook’, v. ‘hang on (smth.), hang on a  
 hook’ > Tungusic \*elgu ‘hook (for pulling fish out of a net)’, (<?) ‘bear’s  
 fang’ > Negidal ɜlgu/ɜ ‘hook, bear’s fang’, Ewenki ɜlgu, Lamut ɜlg̃b̃ ~ ɜlg̃b̃  
 ‘fish-spear’, Orochi ɜggu, Ulcha ɜlʒu, Orok ɜldu, Nanay ɜlgu ‘hook’ |||  
 Mongolic \*elgü- v. ‘hang on (smth.)’ > Class. Mong. elgü-, ölgü- v. ‘hang,  
 hang on (a nail), elgүн qada- v. ‘nail onto (as pictures to the wall)’,  
 Halha-Mong. ölgö- v. ‘hang, hang on (smth.)’ ||| ? Turkic \*l̄l- v. ‘hang on  
 (smth.)’ > Old Turkic il- ‘to catch smth. (with the hand, a hook, etc.)’,  
 Türkmen l̄l- id. (‘прицепляться, зацепляться’), Yakut l̄l- ‘to hang  
 (smth. on an animal’s back)’, Qumiq, Qırghız, Qaraqalpaq, Nogay, Uzbek,  
 East Turkic, Turkish (dial.) il-, Qazaq il l̄l-, Volga Tatar, Bashqurt эл- ы,  
 Khakas il- l̄l- v. ‘hang on’, Altay il- v. ‘hook, hook on’.

[91] **\*kʷaʷkʷ** ‘tooth, claw’, ‘hook’ > **Kartv.** \*kʷakʷ- ‘hook’ > Georgian  
 kʷakʷi ‘hook’ (‘Haken, Hakenchen’), Laz kʷokʷ-a id., kʷokʷari ~ kʷakʷari id. ||| **Ham.-**

**Sem.:** Sem. \*kakk- ‘(a kind of) tooth, sharp stick’ > Jewish Aramaic kak'k-ā, Syriac kak'k-ā, Mandaic kaka ‘tooth, molar’, Akkadian kakk-u(m) ‘stick, weapon’ || ? **Indo-Eur.** \*kog-/\*keg- ‘hook, claw’ > Germanic \*hōka-, \*hakan- and \*hēkan- ‘hook’ > Old High German hāko, haggero, Anglo-Saxon hōc ‘hook’ > English hook; Old Norse hækja ‘poker’ || Slavic \*kogъtъ ~ \*kogъtъ > Old Russian, Russian 'коготь, Czech (dial.) kohát ‘claw’, High Lusatian kochť ‘awn, костеръ (a weed cereal)’ ¶ The lack of labialization of the IE stem-final consonant is still to be explained || **Uralic** \*kokka ‘a protruding point, hook’ > Finnish kokka ‘a protruding point’, ‘stem of a ship (Vordersteven, Vorderschiff)’, Finnish (dial.) kokka ‘hook, fish-hook’, Karelian kokka ‘hook, stem of a ship’ | proto-Lappish \*kōkkē > Norw. Lapp goakke ‘hoe’, Inari Lapp koakki, Kildin Lapp kuəɔ ka\_ ‘hook’ || Vasyugan Ostyak kaʷəw, Teryugan Ostyak kãʷap, куыр- ‘hölzener Hachthaken’; alternatively, the Ostyak word may go back to Finno-Ugric \*kopkka < Nostr. \*goPḲa ‘(a kind of) tooth, hook’ || Kolima Yukagir kōke ‘head (of a fish, of an animal)’ || **Altaic:** Tungusic \*xūkte ‘tooth’ (< \*\*xūk-kte, where \*-kte is a suffix) > Ewenki īktɜ ‘tooth’, Negidal īktɜ ‘tooth, canine’, Nanay xukte ‘tooth’, Class. Manchu ʷeyxe, Sibe Manchu vīxɜ ‘tooth, canine’, Jurchen yuyxe ‘tooth’ || **Drav.** \*kokk- ‘hook’ > Tamil kokki id., Malayalam kokka ‘clasp, hook’, Kota koky, Toda kw+ky, Kannada kokki, kokke, Kodagu kokke ‘crook, hook’, Tulu kokkæ ‘hook, clasp’, Telugu kokki ‘a hook’, Gondi kokki ‘hoe’ ¶¶ The association of this Drav. noun with the partially homophonous verb \*konkk-/\*kokk- v. ‘bend’ is secondary (popular etymology). It brought about blended forms like Telugu konki ‘hook’ ◇ The labialization of the vowel in Ural., Drav. and Tungusic may be due to Nostr. \*w (still preserved in Kartv.). The Nostr. vowel \*a is reconstructed on the evidence of IE (initial \*k- without labialization or palatalization), Semitic and Kartvelian. The long \*-kk- in Ural. may point to the underlying ancient consonant cluster, but it (just as Kartv. \*-ḳ-) may be also explained by assimilation.

[92] \*toř∇ ‘bark; to bark (remove the bark), to peel’ > ? **Ham.-Sem.:** Chadic: Angas-Goemay \*(n)daram ‘bark’ > Sura dëràm ‘thick tree-bark’, Tal dɜram, Yiwom ndàràm, Tambas dəràm ‘bark’, Angas dəràm | Warji tirhei

‘skin’ || East Chadic: Somray tārín ‘bark’, Kera tīrɜ, Tumak dār ‘human skin’ || **Indo-European** \*der- ‘to skin, flay, bark’ > Armenian teřem ‘I flay, skin’ || Greek δέρω id., δέλω id. (\*-yo-present) || Low Lithuanian (Zhemaitian) derù, Lithuanian dirìù (\*-yo-present), inf. dīrti v. ‘flay, bark’ | proto-Slavic \*derq / \*d̥ra-ti > Old Church Slavonic derq, d̥rati v. ‘skin, flay; tear to pieces, lacerate’, Russian драть, де'р'у v. ‘bark (a tree)’, обод'рать, обде'р'у v. ‘peel, bark’, Czech deru, dřítì ‘schinden, schälen’ || **Altaic** \*tōr̥ > Turkic \*t̪ōr̪ ‘birch bark’ > Old Turkic toz ‘birch bark’, Volga Tatar tuz, Bashqurt tuδ, Qazaq toz, Standard Altay, Khakas tos, Tuva t'ōs, Tofalar t'os, Yakut tūōs ‘birch bark’, Azeri toz-ayacı ‘birch tree’ (ayacı ‘tree’) ||| Mongolic \*duru-sun > Class. Mong. durusun, Halha дурс ‘shell, bark’, Kalmuck dursən ‘bark (Baumrinde)’ ||| Tungusic \*duri ‘cradle made of birch bark’ > Lamut dōr & dur, Negidal duy, Orochi duyì, Ude dūi, Ulcha, Nanay duri id., Class. Manchu duri ‘cradle’ ◇ The IE root goes back to a merger of two Nostr. roots: \*t'ōr̪ ‘to peel, to bark’ and \*ter'ì ‘to tear, burst’.

[93] \*Ḳa'p̪ɪ'ɛ' ‘bark’ > **Ham.-Sem.**: Cushitic: Agaw \*ḳapp- > Awngi qap, Bilin ḳāf ‘bark’ || South Cushitic: Iraqw qafi (pl. qafō) ‘membrane, cover’, qāfta ‘peel of fruits’, Alagwa qafaɪ, Burungi qafa ‘bark’ ||| Chadic: West Chadic: Geji gùp̪ɪɲ ‘bark’, Boghom kòp̪ɪɲ id., Zar of Kal kʷàḃà, Zar of Gambar-Lere kàbú, Saya kóbɜk || Central Chadic: Tera gèḃà, Pidlimti g+ḃɜr ‘bark’ || **Uralic** \*kopa ‘bark’ > Estonian kõba ‘fir bark’ | Erzya-Mordvin кyбо ‘crust, rind’, Moksha-Mordvin кyба id., ‘bark’ | Cheremis (dial.) kuwo & kuwũ & kuwə & kũwo ‘chaff, pod, husk’ | proto-Permian \*ku ‘bark, skin’ > Votyak ku id., Ziryene ku ‘pelt, skin’ ||| Samoyedic \*kop̪a ‘skin, bark’ > Tundra Nenets xobă ‘skin (of an animal)’, Forest Nenets kōp̪:ă, Nganasan 'kufu, Enets 'koba ‘skin’, Taz Sölqup qop̪+ ‘pelt of an animal, skin, bark, rind’, Kamassian k'uba, k'uḃa ‘skin, hide, leather’, Koibal кyба, Mator kō ‘skin’, Taigi kōroto ‘his skin’ (according to Janhunen’s analysis) || **Altaic** \*k'āp̪a ‘bark, skin’ > Turkic \*k'āpuk ‘bark, shell’ > Old Turkic qavıq, qavıuq ‘bran’, Old Qıpchaq [14th c.] qawuq ‘millet\barley gruel’, Turkish kabuk, Türkmen gābıq, Azeri gabıq, Salar gox, Volga Tatar, Bashqurt, Qazaq, Qırghız qabıq, Gagauz, Balqar qabuq, Crimean Tatar

qabuχ, Uzbek qobiq, East Turkic qobuq, Chuvash хура́ хура́ ‘bark, shell’, Khakas ха́биχ, Tuva ха́виχ ‘husk’; Gagauz qar ‘cover’ ||| Mongolic \*qaβ<sup>1</sup>uda-sun ‘bark’ > Class. Mong. qagudasan, Halha хуудас, Buryat хуудана(н) ‘sheet of paper’, Kalmuck хуудс хūdъs id., хūdъсн ‘bark’; Mongolic \*qaβ<sup>1</sup>ura- v. ‘peel’ > Class. Mong. qagura- ~ qaura-, Halha хуура-х v. ‘peel off’; Mongolic \*qaβ<sup>1</sup>ul- v. ‘peel’ > Middle Mongolian хаγ<sup>1</sup>ul-ху v. ‘skin, flay, peel’ (‘abhäuten, abschinden’), Class. Mong. qagul-, Halha хуула-х v. ‘peel off, skin, flay’, Kalmuck хуул-х хūl-хъ, Monguor хū<sup>1</sup>li- id.; Mongolic \*qobqul- v. ‘peel, flay’ > Class. Mong. qobqul-, Halha ховхло-х id. ||| ? Tungusic \*xabda- v. ‘clean a tree from branches’, \*xabda-nsa ‘leaf’ > Manchu abda-, abdala- ‘clean a tree from branches’, abdaxa ‘leaf’, Jurchen abuha (or abdaha), Ewenki abdanna, Lamut ebdɛnrɛ ɛ ebdɛndɛ, Negidal abdahān, Orochi abdasa, Ude abdehæ, Ulcha, Naikhin Nanay xabdata, Bikin Nanay xabtaca ~ xabca ~ xaftaca, Orochi xamdata, Sibe Manchu afəhə ~ afxa ‘leaf’, Class. Manchu afaxa ‘leaf (floating on water), sheet (of paper)’ ||| proto-Korean (according to Starostin) \*kəp<sup>h</sup>- (~ \*kəp<sup>h</sup>-) ‘bark’ > Middle Korean kəp<sup>h</sup>ir, kəpčir ‘bark’, Standard Korean k:əpčil ‘skin, bark, shell’, k:əpteki id., ‘husk, peel’, Korean dialects: Phyöngyang k:əpčil, Phyöngyang-Namdo k:əpčil, Kyöngsangdo k:əpčì, Hamgyöngdo k:čpčì, Seoul k:čpčil, Chöngsando koptégi, Kangwöngdo kəptegi ‘bark’, Chejudo k:əptegi id., ‘skin’ ||| proto-Japanese \*kapa ‘skin, bark’ > Old Japanese kapa, Japanese dialects: Tokyo kawá, Keto kàwa, Kagoshima kawā, Nase kó, Shuri kǎ, Yonakuni kǎ 𑖪𑖻 According to Starostin, the Altaic root has a variant \*k’ēp<sup>o</sup> > proto-Korean \*kəp<sup>h</sup>- (see above), Turkic \*k<sub>L</sub>’epək ‘bran, chaff’ and Mongolic \*kebeg ‘bran, husks’. These two variants may represent two different results of synharmonic levelling, suggesting the existence of a front vowel in the second syllable of the Nostr. root ||| ? **Kartvelian:** Georgian qep-i ‘sheet of paper’; the unexpected vowel e has no explanation so far ◇ The vowel \*o in Ural. may be explained by assimilary influence of \*p.

[94] \***Kayer** ▽ ‘bark, film’ > **Altaic** \*k’ayEr ▽ > Mong. \*qayir<sub>L</sub>-sun ‘scales’ > Middle Mongolian qairsun ‘fish scales’, Class. Mong. qairsun ~ qairasun, Halha-Mong. хайрс ‘scales (of fishes and reptiles), Ölöt



Kalmuck  $\text{x}\bar{\text{a}}\text{r}\text{s}\eta$  ‘scales, hard bark, callosity’ ||| Turkic: Volga Tatar  $\text{qayraq}$  ‘hard tumour’ (the homonymy with  $\text{qayraq}$  ‘whetstone’, bringing about popular etymology: ‘tumour as hard as a whetstone’), Volga Tatar  $\text{qayrı}$  ‘bark, lime bast’, Chuvash (dial.)  $\text{xoy}\bar{\text{r}}$  ‘bark’ ||| Tungusic \* $\text{xere-}$  v. ‘bark’ > Class. Manchu  $\text{ere-}$  v. ‘bark of a birch-tree’, Ulcha  $\text{x}\bar{\text{r}}\bar{\text{r}}\bar{\text{z}}$  v. ‘scale (dried fish skin)’, Tungusic \* $\text{xere-kte}$  ‘bark’ (noun) > Ewenki  $\text{z}\bar{\text{r}}\bar{\text{z}}\bar{\text{k}}\bar{\text{t}}\bar{\text{z}}$  ‘bark’, Negidal  $\text{z}\bar{\text{y}}\bar{\text{z}}\bar{\text{k}}\bar{\text{t}}\bar{\text{z}}$ , Ulcha, Orok, Nanay  $\text{x}\bar{\text{r}}\bar{\text{r}}\bar{\text{z}}\bar{\text{k}}\bar{\text{t}}\bar{\text{z}}$ , Orochi  $\bar{\text{z}}\bar{\text{k}}\bar{\text{t}}\bar{\text{z}}$  ‘skin’, Lamut  $\text{z}\bar{\text{r}}\bar{\text{t}}\bar{\text{z}}$  id., ‘scales’ ||| proto-Korean (according to Starostin) \* $\text{k}\bar{\text{a}}\bar{\text{r}}\text{-}\check{\text{c}}^{\text{h}}\bar{\text{i}}\bar{\text{z}}\eta$  > Middle Korean  $\text{k}\bar{\text{a}}\bar{\text{r}}\text{-}\check{\text{c}}^{\text{h}}\bar{\text{i}}\bar{\text{z}}\eta$  ‘young skin of a plant’ ||| proto-Japanese \* $\text{kara}$  ‘shell’ > Old Japanese, New Japanese  $\text{kara}$  || **Indo-Eur.** \* $\text{ker-}$  ‘skin, hide, bark’ > Old Indian  $\text{'carma}$  ‘skin, hide’, Avestan  $\check{\text{c}}\bar{\text{a}}\bar{\text{r}}\bar{\text{a}}\bar{\text{m}}\bar{\text{a}}\bar{\text{n}}$  ‘hide, leather’, Old Persian  $\check{\text{c}}\bar{\text{a}}\bar{\text{r}}\bar{\text{m}}\bar{\text{a}}\bar{\text{n}}$  ‘leather’ || Latin  $\text{corium}$  ‘thick skin, hide, bark’ || Greek  $\kappa\bar{\omega}\rho\upsilon\kappa\omicron\varsigma$  ‘leather sack’ || Irish  $\text{curach}$ , Welsh  $\text{corwg}$ ,  $\text{cwrwg}$  ‘boat made of animal skin’ || Lithuanian  $\text{karnà}$  ‘lime-bast’, Prussian  $\text{kērmens}$  ‘body’ | Slavic \* $\text{kora}$  ‘bark’ > Old Church Slavonic  $\text{коpa}$ , Bulgarian, Russian  $\text{ко'pa}$ , Serbo-Croatian  $\text{kō'ra}$ , Slovene  $\text{kó'ra}$ , Czech  $\text{ků'ra}$ , Polish  $\text{kora}$  id. || ?? **Kartv.**: Georgian  $\text{kerk-}$  ‘bark, crust, peel’, Arxavuri Laz  $\text{kyark-}$  ‘skin of the hand’ || **Uralic**: (1) pre-Ural. \*\* $\text{kayer}\nabla$  > \*\* $\text{kayr}\nabla$  > \*\* $\text{kār}\nabla$  > Finno-Ugric \* $\text{kōr}\nabla$  ‘skin, bark’ > Finnish  $\text{kuori}$  ‘skin, peel, bark, crust, shell’, Estonian  $\text{koor}$  ‘shell (of eyes), peel, bark’ | Erzya & Moksha Mordvin  $\text{kār}$  ‘bast shoe’ | Permian \* $\text{kōrs}$  > Ziryene  $\text{kīrs}$  ‘bark’ ||| Samoyedic \* $\text{kār}$  (?) ‘skin, shell’ > Tundra Nenets  $\text{сяр}$  ‘skin, surface’, Obdorsk dial.  $\text{šār}$  ‘harte Innenfläche der Tierhaut’. Forest Nenets  $\text{šār}$  in  $\text{nūm šār}$  ‘Himmelsgewölbe’, Taz Sölqup  $\text{qora}$  ‘hide’ ||| Kolima Yukagir  $\text{xār}$  ‘skin’,  $\text{šān-xār}$  ‘bark’ (lit. ‘tree-skin’) |||| (2) pre-Ural. \*\* $\text{ka'yer}\nabla$  > Finno-Ugric \* $\text{kere}$  > Finnish  $\text{keri}$  ‘the bark which grows on the birch tree after the first bark has been removed’, Estonian  $\text{kere}$  ‘lime-bast’ | proto-Lappish \* $\text{k}\bar{\text{r}}\bar{\text{z}}$  ‘bark’ > Norw. Lapp  $\text{gār'râ}$ , Kildin Lapp  $\text{kār'r}$  id. | Erzya Mordvin  $\text{керь}$   $\text{kēr}$ , Moksha Mordvin  $\text{кяр}$   $\text{kār}$  ‘bark, sheet of lime bast’ | Highland Cheremis  $\text{kər}$ , Lowland and East. Cheremis  $\text{kür}$  id. | Permian \* $\text{kör}$  > Ziryene  $\text{kör}$  /  $\text{kory-}$  ‘peel’, (in a set phrase) ‘sheet of lime-bast’, Luza Ziryene  $\text{kör}$  ‘upper layer of bark’, Upper Sísola Ziryene  $\text{kqr}$  ‘bark’, Votyak, Permyak  $\text{kur}$ , Southwestern Votyak  $\text{kūr}$ , Beserman Votyak  $\text{kōr}$  ‘lime bast’ || Ob-Ugric \* $\text{kīr}(\nabla)$  ‘bark’ > proto-Vogul \* $\text{kīr}$  > Tavda,

Konda and Sosva Vogul *kēr* id.; proto-Ostyak \**kir* ‘snow crust’ > Vakh Ostyak *kir* id.; proto-Ostyak \**kār* ‘bark’ > Vakh Ostyak *kār* | Old Hungarian *kér* ‘diaphragm’, (in compound words) -*kér* ‘thin skin, film’, Hungarian *kérög* ‘bark, crust’.

[95] \**to<sub>L</sub>wa* or \**to<sub>ga</sub>-w* ‘hide, skin’ > **Kartvelian** \**tqaw*- id. > Old Georgian *tqaw*- ‘leather, skin, hide’, Georgian *tqav*- id., Megrelian *tqeb*- ‘skin’, *tqabar*- v. ‘skin’, Laz *tqeb* ~ *tēb*- ‘skin, hide’ || **Ham.-Sem.:** Chadic \**✓dk* ‘skin’: West Chadic: Bole *dīšī* || Central Chadic: Masa *dīgīnā* ~ *dīk* ‘skin’, Zime *dīké* ~ *dīké* ‘human skin’, Lame *dikiētú*, Lame-Peve *dīketu* ‘skin’ | Chadic \**✓tk* ~ \**✓tk* ‘skin, body’ > East Chadic: Migama *túkkú*, Jegu *tok*, Mubi *tògò* & *tógò* ‘skin, hide’ || West Chadic: Yiwom *tak* ‘body’ | Warji *təṣāḷ*, Tsagu *čúké*, Kariya *tí*, Miya *túwàtú*, Mburku *təwó*, Jimbin *túwá* ‘body’ | Ngizim *təkà* ‘body’ (unless from Kanuri *tīgè* ‘body’) || ?? Central Chadic: Masa *twa*, *túnā*, Zime-Batna *tú* ‘body’ || **Indo-Eur.** \**twakos* ‘skin, hide’ > Old Indian *tvak* ‘skin, hide’ | ? Old Persian *taka-* ‘shield’ || Greek *τάκος* ‘shield’ (← \* ‘made of leather’), *φερεσσακής* m. ‘shield-bearing, Schildträger’ (*σ-* < \**tw-*, -*σσ-* < \**-tw-*) ||| Hittite *tuēkka-* ‘body, person, self’, Lycian *tuēdri-* ‘statue’ || **Uralic** \**to<sup>h</sup>k<sup>h</sup>* (or \**to<sup>h</sup>*, \**to<sup>h</sup>*) > Ob-Ugric \**tāṣ-* ‘skin, leather’ > proto-Vogul \**tāwā* id. > Tavda Vogul *tawí*, Konda Vogul *towí*, etc.; proto-Ostyak \**tāṣta* ‘reindeer hide’ > Teryugan Ostyak *taṣta*, etc. || **Altaic:** ?*ṭ* Tungusic \**tiki-* *kta* ‘skin, hide (from animal’s head)’ > Ew *tiki-kta* ‘skin’, Lamut *tīkən* ‘hide (from animal’s head)’, Negidal *tikta*, Orochi *tikta* ‘animal’s hair’ || **Dravidian** \**tokk-* ‘skin, bark, rind’ > Tamil *tokku*, Telugu *tokka* id., Malayalam *tokku* ‘skin, peel’ | derived stem \**tokaṭ* ‘bark, peel’ > Kannada *togaṭu*, *togaṭe*, *tōṭe* ‘bark, rind, peel, pod’, Tamil, Malayalam *tōṭu* ‘shell of a fruit’, Gondi *tōtā* ‘outer skin of the mahua fruit’, Gondi Koya *toṭṭe* v. ‘peel’ ◇ The meaning ‘body’ (in Hittite and West Chadic) is secondary (metonymy ‘skin’, ‘body’).

[96] \**ta<sub>L</sub>l<sub>U</sub>ya* ‘skin, pelt’ > **Ham.-Sem.:** Chadic: Kariya, Pa’a *tala*, Tsagu *tal* ‘skin’ || **Uralic** \**tal<sub>L</sub>ya* ‘skin, pelt’ > Finnish *talja* id.; proto-Lappish \**tōlyē* ‘pelt’ > Norw. Lapp *duol<sup>h</sup>je* ||| Samoyedic \**t<sup>h</sup>ā<sup>h</sup>ŷ<sup>h</sup>* (= \**tā<sup>h</sup>ā<sup>h</sup>j<sup>h</sup>*)

‘skin of the head’ > Tundra Nenets таӡ ‘skin of the forehead; forehead’, Obdorsk dial. тӡу ‘skin of the face’, Forest Nenets тӡи, тӡуѡк’у id., Nganasan туӡа ‘skin of the forehead’, Somatu Enets тӡѡ, Bay Enets тӡѡ ‘skin of the head’, Kamassian (der.) т’ууу-ӡӡк’ту ‘reindeer\elk hide used as a bed (Schlafstätte)’ || **Altaic** \*t’al’u > Tungusic \*tal’u ‘birch bark’ > Ewenki talu, Solon tala ~ talu, Negidal, Ulcha, Orok talu, Orochi talu, Ude taluga, Nanay talo ~ talu, Class. Manchu tolɣon || **Drav.** \*tōl / \*toli ‘skin, hide’ > Tamil, Malayalam tōl ‘skin, hide’, Tamil toli ‘skin, rind, husk’, Malayalam toli ‘skin, bark, peel, rind’, Kota to’l, Toda twi’ɣ, Kannada tōl(ɳ), Kodagu to’li, Telugu tōlu, Kuwi tōlū, tōlu ‘skin, hide’, Tulu tolikæ, Parji, Gadba tōl ‘skin, bark’, Naikri, Naiki, Parji tōl ‘skin’, Gondi tōl ‘skin, hide’ ɖ tōla ‘skin, bark of tree’ ɖ tōlu ‘skin’, Konda tōl, tōlu ‘skin (of animals)’ ◇ The rounded vowel following \*l in the Nostr. etymon is tentatively postulated as responsible for \*-u in Tungusic and the labializing assimilative influence in Drav. (bringing about \*ō rather than regular \*a < Nostr. \*a).

[97] \*Kaí’u’ ‘skin, film, bark’ > **Indo-Eur.** \*kalno-, \*k]no- ‘callosity, hard skin’ > Latin callum, callus ‘hardened thick skin, callosity’ || Sanskrit ‘kiṇṇa ‘callosity’ (← Middle Indian < \*kṛṇṇa) || Albanian ‘a-kull ‘ice’ ¶ The stem may have been semantically influenced by IE \*k[kal- ‘hard’ (> Old and Middle Irish calath, calad ‘hard’) || **Uralic** \*kaíwɣ ‘film, thin skin’ > Finnish kalvo ‘film, membrane’, Estonian (dial.) kale, kalu, Livonian kaíġ ‘cataract’ || Permian amb\*kií > Ziryene kií ‘seed-coat, surface film, outer [scaling off] layer of birch bark, dandruff’, Votyak kií ‘scales that come off from the bark, dandruff’ || Hungarian hályog, (dial.) hajag, halyag, hálog ‘cataract’ ¶ The Permian root is ambiguous: it belongs here only if its \*i is accounted for by assimilatory influence of consonants; otherwise it belongs to Finno-Ugric \*keže < Nostr. \*kežɣ ‘skin, bark’ || **Altaic:** Mongolic \*qali-sun ‘the outer layers of smth.; peel, rind, bark, skin’ > Class. Mong. qalisun, Halha халъс, Kalmuck халъсн ха́йсən, Buryat ха́йһа(н) id., Monguor хализз ‘pellicule, membrane, écale, épiderme’ || Tungusic \*xalu- ‘pellicle’ > Bikin Ude alu ‘dandruff’, Class. Manchu alɣuwa ‘outer pellicle (of brain\kidneys\heart), skin of fruit’; Tungusic \*xalu-kta ‘film, inner side of

hide (mezdra)' > Lamut  $\text{a}\text{l}\text{b}$  id., Orok  $\text{x}\text{a}\text{l}\text{o}\text{q}\text{ta}$ , Naikhin & Bikin Nanay  $\text{x}\text{a}\text{l}\text{o}\text{q}\text{ta}$ , Ewenki, Orochi, Ude  $\text{a}\text{l}\text{u}\text{k}\text{ta}$ , Negidal  $\text{a}\text{l}\text{ta}$  'the inner side of hide'; Tungusic  $\text{*}\text{x}\text{a}\text{l}\text{u}$ - > Kur-Urmi Nanay  $\text{a}\text{l}\text{u}$ - v. 'remove the inner side of hide', Lamut  $\text{a}\text{l}\text{b}\text{w}$ - id., v. 'remove a film' ◇ Compare also Kartv.: Georgian  $\text{k}\text{r}\text{o}\text{l}$ -i 'outer shell of a nut\chestnut'. If it belongs here, the initial consonant is to reconstruct as  $\text{*}\text{k}$ -. The root is to be carefully distinguished from paronymic roots, such as  $\text{*}\text{K}\text{o}\text{z}\nabla$  'to peel, to skin'.

[98]  $\text{*}\text{k}\text{o}\text{R}\text{u}\text{p}\nabla$  '(kind of) bark', 'skin' > **Kartv.**: Georgian  $\text{k}\text{r}\text{o}\text{p}$ -i 'bark of cork-oak, cork' || **Ham.-Sem.**: Sem.  $\text{*}\sqrt{\text{k}}\text{r}\text{p}$  'to peel off' > Arabic  $\sqrt{\text{q}}\text{r}\text{f}$  id., Ge'ez  $\sqrt{\text{k}}\text{r}\text{f}$  v. 'peel off, skin, bark'; Sem.  $\text{*}\text{k}\text{irap}$ -(at)- 'bark' > Arabic  $\text{q}\text{ir}\text{f}$ -at- id., pl.  $\text{q}\text{iraf}$ -, Ge'ez  $\text{k}\text{ar}\text{a}\text{f}\text{t}$  'bark, skin, peel, rind'; probably also Sem.  $\text{*}\text{k}\text{ul}\text{irab}$ - > Arabic  $\text{q}\text{irb}$ -at- (pl.  $\text{q}\text{irab}$ -āt-) 'a large skin for milk or water', Tigray  $\text{k}\text{w}\text{erb}\text{et}$ , Amharic  $\text{k}\text{orb}\text{et}$  'skin for milk',  $\text{k}\text{urb}\text{et}$  'tanned hide used as a sleeping mat', Tigre  $\text{k}\text{erb}\text{et}$  'dressed skin; skin for water\milk\honey', Ge'ez  $\text{k}\text{w}\text{arb}\text{ā}\text{bit}$ , Amharic  $\text{k}\text{w}\text{arb}\text{ē}\text{bi}\check{\text{c}}\check{\text{c}}\text{a}$  'leather bag'; Ethiosemitic → Beja  $\text{k}\text{w}\text{ar}\text{be}$  'skin', proto-Agaw  $\text{*}\text{k}\text{w}\nabla\text{rb}$ - $\nabla\text{t}$ - 'skin' > Khamir  $\text{k}\text{w}\text{ar}'\text{b}\text{ī}$  'skin, hide', Khamta  $\text{k}\text{erb}\text{ir}$  'skin', Kwara  $\text{k}\text{ō}\text{rb}\text{ē} \sim \text{k}\text{ō}\text{rb}\text{ē} \sim \text{k}\text{ō}\text{rb}\text{ī}$  'skin, leather'; ? Ge'ez  $\text{k}\text{arb}$  'eyelid' ||| ? East Cushitic: Tsamay  $\text{garb}$  'skin' ||| Chadic: West Chadic: Tsagu  $\text{k}\text{ó}\text{r}\text{ō}\text{p}\text{é}$ , Wangday  $\text{k}\text{w}\text{ò}\text{r}\text{p}$  'bark' || East Chadic: ? Somray  $\text{k}\text{w}\text{à}\text{b}\text{è}\text{r}\text{á}\text{w}$  'bark' || **Indo-Eur.**  $\text{*}\text{k}\text{reup}$ - 'crust, crusted' > Celtic: Latin (← Gaulish)  $\text{cruppellarii}$  'armoured people, i.e. the Gaulish gladiators who fought in full armour' || Old Norse  $\text{hr}\acute{\text{u}}\text{fa}$  'crust of a wound', Bavarian German  $\text{Ruff}$  'Kruste auf rasch getrocknetem Erdreich', Old High German  $\text{ge-rob}$  > German  $\text{grob}$  'coarse' || Latvian  $\text{k}\text{r}\acute{\text{a}}\text{ũ}\text{pa}$  'scab, wart',  $\text{k}\text{r}\acute{\text{a}}\text{ũ}\text{pis}$  'scab', Lithuanian  $\text{n}\text{u-kr}\grave{\text{u}}\text{p}\text{ę}\text{s}$  'scurfy',  $\text{k}\text{raup}\grave{\text{u}}\text{s}$  'coarse'; in the IE languages the root contaminated with  $\text{*}(\text{s})\text{krep-}/\text{*}(\text{s})\text{kerp-}$  of another origin (> Old High German  $\text{scorf}$ , Anglo-Saxon  $\text{scēorf}$  'scurf', Lithuanian  $\text{karpa}$  'wart') || **Altaic**: Mongolic  $\text{qoru}\text{ᠦ}$  > Class. Mong.  $\text{qoru}\text{u}$ ,  $\text{qorgu}$ , Halha  $\text{xypyy}$ , Kalmuck  $\text{xor}\text{ᠦ}\text{ᠠ}$  'spot in the eye, film, cataract'.

[99]  $\text{*}\text{K}\text{o}\text{z}\nabla$  'to skin, to bark' > **Hamito-Semitic**: Semitic  $\text{*}\sqrt{\text{k}}\text{š}\text{w}$  > Arabic  $\sqrt{\text{q}}\text{š}\text{w}$  (past  $\text{qaššā}$ , present-future  $\text{-qšuw-}$ ) v. 'bark (wood), skin (a

snake)' || **Uralic** \*koʒɳ- v. 'skin, bark' > Lowland & Eastern Cheremis kuɖaʃa-, Highland Cheremis кьɖaʃa- v. 'take off (clothes, footwear)' || Permian \*kuí- v. 'take off, bark (wood), skin (an animal)' > Votyak кыль- kɪ́l- v. 'take off (clothes)', Ziryene кыль- kuí- id., v. 'bark (wood), skin (an animal)', Yazvian kúí- v. 'bark, skin' || Upper Konda Vogul kʒɪ́t-, Upper Lozva Vogul ɣaíʔ- v. 'peel, scutch (hemp\nettle)', Tavda Vogul kʒɪ́ntoʔ 'chaff (of hemp\nettle)' || **Altaic**: Mongolic \*qoltʰuʔ-sun 'bark (of a tree)' > Class. Mong. qoltusun, qoltasun, Halha холтоc id.; Mongolic \*qoltu- (+ deriv. suffixes) v. 'peel off' > Class. Mong. qoltul-, Halha холтлох, Kalmuck холтлх ɣoltəɬɣə, Class. Mong. qoltura, Halha холтрох id.

[100] \*KɳRɳHɳpɳ 'piece of leather (used esp. as footwear)' > **Indo-Eur.** \*kerap-/ \*krēp- id. > Latin *carpisculum* '(a kind of) shoe' || Old Irish *cairem* 'shoemaker' (< \*\**kariam*os, IE \*k<sub>o</sub>rap-), Welsh *crydd* (< Celtic \*ka'riyos), Old Cornish *chereor*, Breton *kere*, *kereour* id. || Old Norse *hriflingr*, Anglo-Saxon *hrifeling* 'shoe' || Lithuanian *kùrpė*, Latvian *kuŗpe*, Prussian *kurpe* 'shoe' || Slavic: [1] \*kьrpа 'piece of cloth' > Church Slavonic **крѣпа** *krěpa* 'textura, ὕφαντα' ('web'), Bulgarian 'кърпа' 'shawl', Macedonian Slavic **крпа** 'rag, shawl, towel', Serbo-Croatian *kŕpa*, Slovene *kŕpa* 'rag, patch'; [2] \*kьrpъ, \*kьrpь, \*kьrpja '(a kind of) footwear' > Polish (dial.) *kierp* id., *karpie* 'a kind of footwear with a wooden sole', Czech (dial.) *krp* 'high boot', Serbo-Croatian (dial.) *kŕplje* 'ski', Serbo-Croatian *kŕplja* 'wooden hoop on shoes for walking on deep snow' || Greek *κηπίς* / *κηπίδος* 'shoe' || **Ham.-Sem.**: Chadic \*✓krp 'footwear' > West Chadic: Tsagu *kàràpàtàn*, Mburku *kàrákəm* 'shoe' || Central Chadic: Daba *kìráp*, Kola *kráp*, Musgu *harabág* id. || **Drau.** \*kerɳpp- 'footwear (sandals, etc.)' > Tamil *ceruppu*, Malayalam *cerippu*, Kota *kevr*, Toda *kerf*, Kannada *keravu* ~ *kerahu* ~ *kerpu*, Telugu *ceppu* 'sandal, shoe', ? Kolami, Naikri *kerri* 'shoe, boot', Pengo *cerup*, *cerpu*, Gondi *serpum* & *sarpum* & *sarpo* & *sarpu* & *herpunb* 'sandal', Konda *sepu* 'shoe', Kuwi *seppu* ~ *seppū* id., *cepuṅga* 'sandals', Kurukh *kʰarpā* 'straps (without sole) crossed over and worn round the ankle'.

[101] \***pixlyyA** ‘sharp bone, sharp tool’ > **Kartv.** \***pχa-** (or \***pqa-**) ‘fish bone, cartilage, awn’ > Georgian **pχa-** ‘cartilage, awn’, Megrelian **χa-** ‘snake’s cartilage, fish scale’, Laz **mχa-** ‘fish bone’, Svan **pχa-** ‘fish bone’; according to Klimov, the Georgian verb **pχeḱ-/pχiḱ-** v. ‘scrape (скоблить)’ belongs here as well || **Indo-Eur.** \*(s)p(h)ēi-/\*(s)p(h)ĩ- ‘pointed (spitz), a pointed piece of wood’ > Old Indian **‘sphyā-** ‘piece of wood shaped like a sword; shoulder-blade’, Khovar **pḥī** ‘wooden spade’, Prs **𐭥𐭥𐭥** **fīh** ‘oar, spade’ |||| with the root-extension \*-d-: Anglo-Saxon **spitu**, Old High German **spiz** ‘spit (Bratspieß)’, German **Spieß** ‘spear, spit’, Norwegian **spita** ‘Pflock’, **spit** ‘point’, Old High German **spizzi**, German **Spitze** id., English **spit** || Latin **cuspis**, -dis ‘point (of a spear); sting; spear, lance; spit’ (< \***kuri-spis**) || **Uralic** \***piye** ‘flintstone, stone’ > Finnish **pii** ‘flintstone’, Finnish, Estonian **piikivi** id. (**kiivi** ‘stone’) ||| Samoyedic \***ṛḃāy** ‘stone’ > Tundra Nenets **ṛḃḃ**, Obdorsk dial. **ṛḃḃ** ‘stone, glass’, Forest Nenets **ṛḃḃ** id., Tundra Nenets **tūm-pe**, Forest Nenets **tup-pī** ‘flintstone, Feuerstein’ (**tū** ‘fire’), Somatu Enets **fū**, Bay Enets **fū ~ ṛḃ** ‘stone’ | Taz Sölqup **pū**, Ketj, Tīm & Turukhan Sölqup **pū** ‘stone’ | Koibal **pi** | Mator **hilä**, Taigi **hyla** id. ||| Kolima Yukagir **pie** ‘Berg, Stein, Felsen’ ||? **Altaic:** Tungusic: Class. Manchu **fe-** v. ‘mow’ ||| Korean **pi-** v. ‘cut as with a sickle’ ||?? **Ham.-Sem.:** Cushitic: Iraqw **fēh-** v. ‘split’ ||| West Chadic: Miya **ḃiy-**, Warji **ḃiy-** v. ‘stab, pierce’, Kariya **ḃiyà**, Siryanchi **ḃiyù** v. ‘pierce’ ||| Central Chadic: Logone **ḃiyà** v. ‘cut’.

## 7. Anatomy

The speakers of Nostratic had a fairly good knowledge of anatomy. The words usually do not distinguish between the human body and that of animals, but we may guess that their main interest was in the latter. In addition to words referring to easily observable and identifiable parts of the body (head, leg, horn, tail, etc.), they had special terms for inner organs and inner substances: not only ‘heart’ and ‘liver’, but also ‘bile’ (\***pišṽ**), ‘spleen’ (\***ṛḃāḃ** ~ \***ṛḃāḃ**), ‘brain and marrow’, to such details which are not usually distinguished today (by those who are not physicians), e.g. ‘occiput’ (\***ḡedi**), ‘sinciput’ (\***ṛEqmE**), ‘popliteal space (hollow at the back of the knee)’ (\***ḡolatḱE**), ‘jugular vertebra, nape’ (\***ḡiḱa**). All this is natural for

the society of hunters, for those who used different parts of animal bodies for cooking and for manufacturing goods.

[102] \***piš**∇ ‘bile’ > **Indo-European** \***bis**-(t)∇ ‘bile’ > Latin *bīlis* (< \**bislis*) id. || Welsh *bustl*, Old Cornish *bistel*, Breton *bestl* id. || **Uralic** \***piša** ‘bile’ (→ ‘green, yellow’) > Erzya Mordvin *piže*, Moksha Mordvin *piža* ‘green, copper’ ||| Samoyedic \***p̄tā** ‘bile’ > Tundra Nenets *п̄ад̄я*, Forest Nenets *па̄č̄ä*, Nganasan *fate* & *hot̄*, Enets *по̄де* id. | Taz Sölqup *pat* ‘bile’, *pat̄í* ‘yellow, green, blue’, Tīm Sölqup *pād*, Chaya Sölqup *ра̄че* ‘bile’; Kamassian *p̄āda*, Koibal *пода* ‘bile’ | Mator *хад̄ыде* ‘his/its bile’ || **Dravidian** \***picc**- ‘bile’ > Tamil *piccu* ‘bile, madness’, Malayalam *piccu*, Kota *pu*, Kannada *peccu*, *paccu*, *puccu*, Telugu *picci*, *picca* ‘madness’, Toda *pū* ‘anger’, Naiki *pisak* ‘mad’; Drav. ⇨ Old Indian *pitta*- ‘bile’.

[103] \***ṭ̣’āx**∇**la** ~ \***ṭ̣’ā**∇**lxa** or \***ṭ̣’āx**∇**lE** ~ \***ṭ̣’ā**∇**lxE** ‘spleen’ > **Ham.-Sem.**: Sem. \***ṭ̣ihāl**- id. > Middle Hebrew *טֶחַל* *ṭəḥāl*, Jewish Aramaic, Syriac *ṭəḥāl*-ā, Arabic *ṭihāl*- ‘spleen’; Semitic \***ṭulhīm**- ‘spleen’ > Akkadian *ṭulīmu*, Mehri, Harsusi *ṭəlḥaym*, Jibbali *ṭelḥim* id. || **Altaic** \***tāḷ**∇ > Turkic \***ṭāl** ‘spleen’ > Old Uighur *tāl*, East Turkic *tal*, Yakut *tāl* id.; der.: Turkic \***ṭāl**-ak (~ *ṭālāk*) id. > Turkish *dalak*, Gagauz *dalak*, Azeri *dalaş*, Tebriz Azeri *däläş*, Türkmen *dälak*, Qazaq, Volga Tatar, Bashqurt *talaq*, Uzbek *talāq* ||| Mongolic \***deli-kün** > Class. Mong. *deligün*, Middle Mongolian *delgün* & *deliṗün*, Halha *дэлүү* (H), Buryat *дэлүү* (H), Kalmuck *delün* & *delün*, Monguor *diliū*, Dagur *delkin*; Ancient Mongolian \***deli-kün** ⇨ Classical Manchu *delixun* ~ *delyaxun*, Ewenki *džlkin*, Solon *džlkĩ*; Middle Mongolian \***deligün** > Ude *džligi* || **Kartvelian** \***ṭqirp**- ‘spleen’ > Georgian *ṭqirp*-, Megrelian *ṭqip*- id.

[104] \***ṭ’āle**∇**pA** ‘spleen’ > **Ham.-Sem.**: East Cush.: Afar *ale’fū* [pl. *ale’f-it*] ‘spleen’ ||| West Chadic: Sura *ṭlap*, Kofyar *lap*, Montol, Angas *lap* ‘spleen’ || **Uralic** \***läpp**∇ (or \***lepp**∇) > Finno-Ugric: Cheremis *lepə* & *lep* | proto-Permian \***lep** > Votyak *lep*, Southwestern Votyak *lep*, Ziryene *lep* / *lopt*-, Upper Sisola Ziryene *lep*, Yazvian *lep* | Lappish \***ṭap̄de** (by assimilation from \**lap*-*de* with a suffix *-de*) > Norw. *Lapp daw̄de* &

dað'ue, Southern Lapp daabrie, Ume Lapp hàb'dee, Lule Lapp tab'tē, Skolt Lapp täb'dd, Kildin Lapp тәммыт tām<sup>b</sup>p(ă\_) || Teryugan Ostyak ɬăpətnē | Hungarian lép ||| Samoyedic: Forest Nenets ɬapśa & rabśa id. || **Altaic**: Tungusic: Orok lipče 'spleen'.

[105] \*tEqmE 'sinciput, crown of the head, top, tip' > **Ham.-Sem.**: Sem. \*tχm > Arabic ʔaʔχam- 'anterioris pars nasi (in homini et iumento)' ||| Cush.: Agaw \*\*dṽmṽḥ > Awngi dūmī 'top', Agaw ɸ Ge'ez dāmāḥ [damaḥ] 'head, sinciput, summit' (unless < Sem. \*dimāy-, cf. Arabic dimāy- 'brain') || ? East Cush.: Oromo ḍuma (nom. ḍum-ti) 'end' || **Kartv.** \*t'q'em- (or \*t'q'ēm-) > Old Georgian tχem-i 'sinciput; top of the hill', Georgian tχem-i id. ('Scheitel, Gipfel') || **Indo-Eur.** \*teHmṇ > Narrow IE \*tēmṇ > proto-Slavic \*těmę / těmen- 'crown of the head' > Serbian Church Slavonic, Old Russian тѣмѧ tēmě / тѣмѣн- temen- id., 'skull', Russian 'темя, Ukrainian тім'я, Polish ciemie, Serbo-Croatian tjemē 'crown of the head', Czech témě, temeno id., 'summit' || **Altaic**: Mong. \*teme-sün > Class. Mong. teme-sü 'edges of a net; border or hem of a mat' ||| Tungusic \*temṽ ~ \*tuṇE 'sinciput, crown of the head' > Ilimpeya Ewenki tэмulkэ́н ~ timulkэ́н, Ewenki of Podkamennaya-Tunguska & Yerbogachen tuṇulkэ́н 'sinciput, skull', Solon tumulkī, Lamut тэҥэлэк & tuṇэлэк, Arman Lamut tuṇэк ~ тэҥэк, Ude тэмугэ, Orochi тумаха, Sibe Manchu tuṇun 'sinciput'.

[106] \*g'edi 'occiput; hind part' > **Altaic**: Mong. \*gede ~ \*gezi (< \*gedi) 'nape of the neck, occiput, hind part' > Class. Mong. gede id., Class. Mong. gezigе, Halha гээг 'nape of the neck, plait\braided hair, pigtail, queue', Buryat гээгэ 'plait of hair', Western Buryat гээгэ 'occiput'; Middle Mong. gederгү, Monguor g\_id\_iērg\_u & gedergu 'backwards' ||| Tungusic \*gedi 'occiput' > Ewenki gэдimuk & gэдэмuk, гэткэ́н id., Lamut гэдэкэ, гэдэмэк ~ гэдэмэк id., 'occiput bone', Negidal гэдэмuk, Ulcha гэки(n-) 'occiput', Ude гэдигэ id., 'nape of the neck' ||| ? **Turkic** \*KEδi-n 'backwards' > Old Turkic, Chaghatay kāδin 'behind', Khakas кизин kizīn 'hind' (adj. of animal's legs, wheels, etc.), Sagay, Koibal Turkic, Kachin kezīn, Küerik, Shor kăzīn 'hind part, backwards', adj. 'hind', Qazaq keīn



‘behind’, Yakut *kätäx* ‘occiput’ || **Ham.-Sem.:** Chadic: Sura *žet*, Kofyar *žet* ‘occiput’ ||| Cush.: Agaw: Khamta *gīd* ‘hind’ || East Cushitic: Sidamo *gidensa*, *gedensa* ‘after’, *gedensa* ‘last, the end’, *gedensanni*, *gedensā* ‘afterwards’, Somali *gadāl* ‘behind’ (‘dietro, indietro’) ||| ? Omotic: Gofa *gedo* ‘hind part’ || ? **Kartv.:** Georgian *ked-* ‘occiput’, ?? Megrelian *kindir id.*

[107] ? **\*go|atK̥E** ‘popliteal space (back of the knee), armpit’ > **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. \*✓*ʔt̥k* > Central Jibbali *ʔat̥k̥et* (pl. *ʔeʔt̥k̥t̥3*), Eastern Jibbali *ʔat̥k̥et* ‘popliteal space’, Mehri *ʔ3t̥k̥ayt* (pl. *ʔ3t̥k̥t̥3n*) ‘hollow at the back of the knee’ ||| ? Egyptian *ḥcc.t* ‘shoulder (Achsel), armpit’ || **Altaic** (acc. to Starostin) \**okʔ* ‘popliteal space, armpit’: Middle Korean *òkóm*, Phyöngyang Korean *og+m* ‘popliteal space’, Kangwöndo Korean *oyumpē* ‘knee’ ||| Mong. \**ogu-da-sun* ‘armpit gore of clothes’ > Class. Mong. *ogudasun id.*, Kalmuck *oyǝdǝsǝṅ*, *ogdǝsǝṅ* ‘Ärmelzwickel’ || ?? **Indo-Eur.:** Narrow Indo-Eur. \**aks-* (and/or \**ok-*?) ‘armpit’ > Old Irish *ochae* ‘hollow of the armpit’ (suggests IE \**ok-* without \**-s-*?) || Germanic: Old High German *uochisa* ‘armpit’; with a \**-n-*suffix: Old High German *uochsana*, Anglo-Saxon *ōxn* ‘armpit’; with a \**-t-*suffix: Anglo-Saxon *ocusta*, *ōxta*, English *oxter* ‘armpit’, Old Norse *óst*, *óstr* ‘throat-pit’ (‘Halsgrube’) || ?*ʔ* Latin *axilla* ‘armpit’ (with a demin. suffix *-illa*); metathetic variant *ascilla id.*; ⇨ Old Irish *oxal* ‘armpit’ || Armenian *anuth* (< \**asnuth*) ‘armpit’ ||| cf. also a similar word \**aks-el-* for ‘Achsel, shoulder’: Latin *āla* (< \**aksla*) *id.* (‘wing’) || Old Norse *qxl*, Anglo-Saxon *eaxl*, Old High German *ahsala* > German *Achsel* ‘shoulder’ ¶ The connection between \**aks-* ‘armpit’ and \**aks-el-* ‘shoulder’ is not clear (derivation or semantic change, and if so, in which direction? or secondary semantic association between originally unrelated stems?) ¶¶ The IE cognate is valid if Nostr. \**tK̥* may yield IE \**ks* or IE \**-s-* is a suffix.

[108] **\*ñiKa** ‘jugular vertebra, neck, nape of the neck’ > **Indo-European** \**knok(k)-* > Old Norse *hnakki*, *hnakkr* ‘Nacken’, Old High German *hnac* / *hnackes* ‘Nacken, Gipfel’, Middle High German *genicke* ‘Genick’, Anglo-Saxon *hnecca* ‘Nacken, Hinterkopf’, English *neck* || Celtic: Old Irish *cnocc* ‘protuberance, colline, mont’, Irish *cnoc*, Welsh

cnwch ‘protubérance’, cnwch y gwegil ‘la bosse de la nuque’, Old Breton cnoch ‘tumulus’, Middle Breton knech, Breton krec’h, krec’h ‘hill’ || **Uralic** \*ñika ‘vertebra, joint [of a body], neck, nape of the neck’ > Finno-Ugric \*ñika > Finnish nikama ‘vertebra, node of a stalk’ || Hungarian nyak ‘neck’ | Tavda Vogul näk, Northern Vogul nak ‘node of a stalk, joint’; Kazim Ostyak ñăk id. ||| Samoyedic: Taz Sölqup nuk+ ‘collar-bone’, Narim Sölqup nug, Ketj Sölqup nukka ‘occiput’ || **Altaic** (according to Illich-Svitych) \*ñika ‘neck, vertebra’ > Mongolic \*nigur-sun ‘spinal marrow, spinal cord’ > Class. Mong. nigursun, Halha nigars(an), nigas, Kalmuck нүгэрчэн нүгэршүг ‘spinal marrow’, Shira-Yughur nurγusān ‘marrow’ ||| Tungusic \*nik-, \*nikin- ‘neck’ > Barguzin Ewenki nikin ‘neck, vertebra of the neck’, Ewenki nikinma ~ ñikinma 𐰽 nikiṃña ~ ñikiṃña ~ nikiṃna ~ ñikiṃna 𐰽 nikiṃṇa id., Chumikan Ewenki nikin ‘throat’, Solon mixama ~ nixima ‘neck’, Lamut ñlqān 𐰽 ñlqān 𐰽 ñikan ‘back of the neck, vertebra of the neck’, Negidal nixma 𐰽 nikiṃna 𐰽 nixkma ‘neck, vertebra of the neck’, Ulcha ñlql(n-) id., ‘back (dorsum)’, Orok nqlq(n-) ‘neck part of a fish head’, nqlqmña ‘neck of a reindeer’, Class. Manchu niqde ‘a concave curve on the horse’s back (between the mane and the front part of the shoulder-blades); nape’ ||| ? Turkic \*jaka ‘collar’ > Old Turkic jaqa, Turkish çaka, Azeri jaxa, Türkmén, Volga Tatar jaqa, Qazaq, Qaraqalpaq žaşa, Nogay jaşa, Qırghız žaqa, Altay jaqa, Uzbek jada, Yakut saşa, Chuvash чyxa śwxa ‘collar’.

## 8. Kinship

It is known that kinship terms reflect the family structure within any given society. The kinship terms in Nostratic reflect exogamy, the division of the society into two exogamous moieties. Among the kinship terms we can see a clear-cut distinction between those referring to ego’s own moiety and those of the other moiety.

Some kinship terms for the other exogamous moiety: \*kālūlū ‘a woman of the other moiety (of the same age or younger than ego)’ (in the descendant languages the word denotes either a bride, or a female relative-in-law, or both), \*küda ‘male relative-in-law (of the same generation or younger than ego)’, \*šezA ‘a male relative of the other moiety’ (in the descendant languages: ‘father-in-law’, ‘son-in-law’, ‘mother’s brother’, and sim.), \*t̪χ ∇, wäñ|n ∇

‘relative [of a younger\the same generation] of the other moiety’. The word \**ḥuḥš* (or \**ḥuḥsy*) means ‘woman of the other moiety’, as well as ‘woman’ (general term).

Kinship terms for members of ego’s moiety: \**Hič* (or \**-č*-, \**-g*h-) ‘father, head of a family’, \**ediN* ‘pater familias’ (or ‘owner?’), \**ar* ‘member of the clan, of the family’. The reconstruction of such kinship terms meets with difficulties for two reasons:

(1) Kinship terms for ‘father’, ‘elder brother’, ‘elder sister’, etc. (just as words for ‘mother’) often happen to be nursery words (as \**aba* ~ \**apa* ‘daddy, father’, \**emA* and \**āy* ‘mother’, \**aqa* ‘elder brother’ [> Sem. \**aχ*-]), which are built according to the same phonetic models (VCV and C<sub>1</sub>VC<sub>1</sub>V: *aba*, *eme*, *ata*, *mama*, *papa*, *tata*, *nene* and sim.) throughout the world (due to phonetic restrictions caused by the limited articulatory and auditory abilities of little children), so that phonetic similarity between such words in different languages is not necessarily due to their common origin: Gothic *atta* ‘father’ and Slavic \**ot-ec* ‘father’ are not cognates because Gothic *t* is not the etymological counterpart of Slavic \**t*.

(2) In the opposition ‘the other moiety’ vs. ‘one’s own moiety’ the latter is unmarked. More than that, in words denoting relatives of one’s own moiety the semantic feature ‘kinship term’ is unmarked, too. Therefore there is often no distinction between ‘son’ and ‘boy’, between ‘daughter’ and ‘girl’ (even in English: *child* is both a kinship term [*his child*] and a word denoting age without reference to kinship). This is true about certain proto-Nostratic words, too (e.g. \**oqu*]V ‘child, one’s child, to beget, to bear a child’).

[109] \**kālū* ‘a woman of the other exogamous moiety’ (‘female relative-in-law’, ‘bride’) > **Ham.-Sem.:** Semitic \**kall-at* ‘daughter-in-law, bride’ > Biblical Hebrew *כלה* *kal’ā* id., Jewish Aramaic *כלתא* *kallə’t-ā*, Syriac *kallə’t-ā*, Akkadian *kallātu*, (Assyrian dial.) *kallatu* ~ *kallutu* id., Ugaritic *kl̥t* ‘Braut, mannbare Tochter’, Sabaic *hkl̥n* (inf. of the causative verb) ‘to marry (a girl)’, Mehri *kālōn*, Jibbali *kālun* ‘bride, bridegroom’, Harsusi *kālōnət* ‘bride’, *kālān* ‘bridegroom’, Soqotri *kālān* ‘bridegroom’ || **Kartvelian** \**kal-* ‘young woman, maid’ > Old Georgian *kal-i* ‘maid’, Georgian *kal-i* ‘woman, daughter’, (čemi \ šeni \ misi) *kal-i* ‘(my\your\his) wife’ || **Indo-European** \**g̑w-*/\**g̑w-* ‘brother’s wife’ > Greek *φάλω*, Attic Greek *φάλα* ‘husband’s sister, brother’s wife, sister-in-law’ || Latin *glōs* (secondary reinterpretation as an -s-stem, hence gen. *glōris*) || Phrygian [Hesychius] *φάλαρος* ‘brother’s

wife' ||| Slavic \*zъlъ (gen. \*zъlъvъ) 'husband's sister' > Church Slavonic зѣлѣва zъlъva, Serbo-Croatian zǎova; der.: Russian зo'ловка id. || **Uralic:** pre-proto-Uralic (acc. to Collinder) \*kälü (but \*kälṽ-ṽṽ, acc. to Itkonen and Rédei) 'female relative-in-law' > Finnish kälү 'daughter-\sister-in-law' ('Schwägerin, Frau des Bruders, Schwester des Mannes od. der Frau'), Estonian káli, (dial.) kälü 'husband's brother, husband's brother's wife' | proto-Lappish \*kālṽy- 'daughter-in-law, sister-in-law', \*kālṽy-ēnnē [\*ēnnē 'mother'] 'sister-in-law' > Southern Lapp gaalluo-, Lule-Lapp kālṽ-jī(e)tnē 'wife of husband's brother or cousin', Norw. Lapp gālo-jædnē 'sister-in-law' (of husband's brother's wife) | proto-Mordvin \*kālā > Moksha-Mordvin кел kēl 'Schwägerin', (dial.) kiyał id., Erzya-Mordvin kīyało кияло 'ianitrices (wives of brothers)' | Permian \*keli 'wife of husband's brother' > Udor & Luza Ziryene kev, Sisola & Letka Ziryene kēl, Kochevo Permyak, Yazvian kēlya id., Northern Votyak ka'li 'wife of husband's brother (older than ego)' || Teryugan Ostyak kiči 'wife's sister', Krasnoyarskiye Ostyak kitā 'daughter of wife's younger brother'; in Ostyak there is contamination of this root and the reflex of Nostr. \*kūda 'male relative-in-law', whence Teryugan Ostyak kiči, Obdorsk Ostyak kili 'husband of wife's sister'; Sosva Vogul kil 'wife's sister' ||| Samoyedic \*kelъ 'relative-in-law' > Tundra Nenets śēḷ, Forest Nenets śjēḷ 'wife of husband's brother, husband of wife's sister', Somatu Enets śérīḷ, Bay Enets śérī 'Schwager', Nganasan śalun, śealun 'Schwager (die Männer zweier Frauen)', Taz Sölqup šēḷ 'husband of wife's sister', Narim Sölqup śāl 'своjak, Schwestermann, Mann der Schwester des Mannes, Schwager' ||| Yukagir: Tundra Yukagir kēlil 'the wife of the wife's brother or male cousin; the wife of the husband's brother or male cousin; the husband of the wife's sister or female cousin; the husband of the husband's sister or female cousin' || **Altaic** \*kälīn 'female relative-in-law, bride' > Turkic \*Kälīn 'bride, son's wife' > Old Turkic kälīn id., Chaghatay kelin, Old Xwarazmi Turkic kälīn, Cuman kelin, Azeri ğälīn, Qarachay-Balqar gelin 'bride', Turkish gelin, Qazaq келін kēlīn 'bride, son's wife', Qaraqalpaq kelin, Volga Tatar килең kileñ 'son's or young brother's wife; young woman', Türkmen, Gagauz gelin 'bride, son's wife, young married woman', Nogay kelin, Bashqurt kileñ, Khakas килін kılın

‘son’s wife’, Uzbek, Qırghız, Standard Altay *kəlin* id., ‘young married woman’, East Turkic *kəlin* ‘son’s wife, bride’, Sarı-Yugur *kəlin* ~ *k’əlin* ~ *k’əlin* ‘bride, wife’, Tuva *kəlin* ‘son’s\younger brother’s wife’, Chuvash *kin* id. ||| Tungusic \**kəlin* > Ewenki *kəlin*, Urmi Ewenki *kəli*, Lamut *kəli* (pl. *kəlin-il*), Orochi, Nanay *kəli*, Ulcha, Orok *kəli* / *kəlin*- ‘husband of the wife’s sister’, Negidal *kəli* ‘husband of a woman from wife’s clan’, Class. Manchu *kəli* ‘husband of wife’s elder sister’, ‘brother-in-law’, *хехе* *kəli* ‘wife of the husband’s brother’ (*хехе* means ‘woman’) || **Dravidian**: Northern Drav. \**kəll̥i* ‘female relative-in-law’ > Kurukh *kəll̥i* ‘father’s younger brother’s wife’, Malto *qəli* ‘mother’s sister’ ◇ The meanings ‘bridegroom’, ‘male relative-in-law’ are demonstrably secondary and are due either to broadening of meaning (by eliminating the semantic element of female sex) or to back formation (as in Harsusi).

[110] \**kūda* ‘a man of the other moiety’ (→ ‘male relative-in-law’) > **Uralic** (according to Illich-Svitych) \**kūδū* > Finnish *к у т у* ‘husband’s\wife’s brother’, Veps *kūdu*, Estonian *kūdi*, (dial.) *kūdū* ‘husband’s brother’ ||| Ob-Ugric: proto-Ostyak \**kūl̥* ‘wife’s sister’s husband’ (‘wife’s [younger] sister’) > Obdorsk Ostyak *kili* ‘wife’s sister’s husband’, Vakh Ostyak *kūli* id., *niŋ-kūli* ‘wife’s sister’ (*niŋ-* means ‘woman’); in Ostyak there is contamination of this root and the reflex of Nostr. \**kəlu* ‘a woman of the other moiety’, whence Teryugan Ostyak *kīfi*, Kazim Ostyak *kīfi* ‘wife’s sister’s husband, wife’s sister’ ||| **Altaic**: Turkic *kūδä-gü* ‘younger sister’s husband, daughter’s husband’ (-*gü* is an adjectival suffix) > Old Turkic *kūδä-gu*, Chaghatay *küyä*, Cuman *küyä* ‘daughter’s husband’, Old Qipchaq *küyä*, Xwarezmi Turkic *kūδä* ‘bridegroom’, Turkish *güvə*, Gagauz *güvə*, Türkmen, Qumuq, Nogay *giyə*, Uzbek *күё* *күд*, Volga Tatar *кия* *күя*, Bashqurt *кейә* *күя*, Qaraqalpaq *күе*, Qırghız *күө*, East Turkic *күю* ‘daughter’s husband, bridegroom’ (East Turkic *ю* means ‘son’), Qazaq *күе* ‘bridegroom’, Standard Altay *küyü*, Khakas *kizö*, Tuva *күдээ* *küdä* ‘daughter’s husband’, Chuvash *kəru* (gen. *kərav-ən*) id., ‘bridegroom’ ||| Mongolic \**quda* ‘father of one’s son-in-law or daughter-in-law’ (in pl.: ‘the heads of two families related through the marriage of their children’) >

Middle Mongolian  $\chi\text{ud}\bar{a}$  id. ('verschwägert, Schwager'), Class. Mong.  $\text{quda}$ , Halha  $\times\text{ud}$ , Buryat  $\times\text{ud}\bar{a}$ , Monguor  $\text{g}\bar{u}\text{d}\bar{a}$  id., Kalmuck  $\chi\text{ud}\bar{a}$  'people related through the marriage of their children' || ? **Kartvelian** \* $\text{kwi}\bar{s}$ -al- / \* $\text{kwi}\bar{s}$ -]- 'wife's sister's husband' > Georgian  $\text{kvi}\bar{s}$ l-, Georgian (Mtiuluri & Mokheuri dialects)  $\text{kvi}\bar{s}$ eli, Megrelian  $\text{kvi}\bar{s}$ il-, Svan  $\text{me-kw}\bar{s}$ -ēl, Lentekh Svan  $\text{mo-kw}\bar{s}$ -äl ¶¶ According to sound laws we expect Kartvelian \* $\text{kwi}\bar{d}$ -. The observed Kartv. stem \* $\text{kwi}\bar{s}$ -al- may have originated from the genitive \*\* $\text{kwi}\bar{d}$ -iṣ- + suffix \*-al- (with a cluster simplification \*-dṣ- > \*-ṣ-).

[111] \* $\acute{s}e\acute{z}A$  'a relative of the other moiety' ('father\son-in-law', 'mother's brother', and sim.) > **Kartvelian** \* $\text{si}\bar{z}e$ - 'son-in-law' > Georgian  $\text{si}\bar{z}e$ -, Megrelian  $\text{si}(\text{n})\bar{z}a$ - &  $\text{sinda}$  id., Laz  $\text{si}\bar{z}a$ - id., 'bridegroom', Svan  $\check{c}\bar{i}\bar{z}e$  'son-in-law' || **Ham.-Sem.:** Cushitic: East Cush. \* $\text{s}\nabla\text{z}$ - 'relative-in-law' > Somali  $\text{s}\acute{o}\text{dd}\acute{o}g$  'father-in-law',  $\text{s}\acute{o}\text{dd}\acute{o}h$  'mother-in-law', Rendille  $\text{seyyo}\bar{h}$  ~  $\text{soyyo}\bar{h}$  'mother-in-law',  $\text{seyyo}\bar{h}$  'father-in-law', proto-Boni \* $\text{s}\acute{i}\text{dd}\acute{a}\bar{h}$  'mother-in-law', 'sister-in-law' > Boni  $\text{siddah}$  &  $\text{sodd}\acute{o}h$  id., Oromo  $\text{sodd-a}$  'in-law' (→ Arbore  $\text{sodd}\acute{a}$  id.), Arbore  $\text{soh}$  id., Gollango  $\text{soqo}$  'son-in-law' ||| ? Egyptian  $\text{sz.ty}$  'Kind, Zögling' || **Uralic** \* $\acute{c}e\acute{c}\bar{a}$  'uncle' > Finnish  $\text{set}\bar{a}$  'father's brother', ? Estonian (dial.)  $\text{sed}\bar{i}$  'mother's brother' | proto-Lappish \* $\acute{c}\bar{e}\bar{c}\bar{e}$  'father's brother' > South. Lapp  $\text{tjiedsie}$ , Lule-Lapp  $\text{tjiehti}\bar{e}$ ,  $\text{tj\ddot{a}hti}\bar{e}$ , Norw. Lapp  $\check{c}\bar{a}\bar{c}\bar{c}\bar{e}$ , Kildin Lapp  $\check{c}\bar{ie}\bar{c}\bar{c}$  'father's younger brother' | Erzya-Mordvin  $\check{c}\bar{i}\bar{c}\bar{e}$  'elder brother-in-law (sister's husband)', Moksha-Mordvin  $\check{s}\bar{c}ava$  ~  $\acute{s}\bar{c}ava$  'mother's mother',  $\check{s}\bar{c}\bar{a}\bar{t}a$  'mother's father' | proto-Cheremis \* $\check{c}\bar{u}\bar{c}\bar{a}$  ~ \* $\check{c}\bar{e}\bar{c}\bar{a}$  > Lowland Cheremis  $\check{c}\bar{u}\bar{c}\bar{u}$   $\check{c}\bar{u}\bar{c}\bar{u}$ , Highland Cheremis  $\check{c}\bar{u}\bar{c}\bar{u}$   $\check{c}\bar{a}\bar{c}\bar{a}$  'mother's brother', East. Cheremis  $\acute{c}\bar{u}\bar{c}\bar{o}$  ~  $\text{t}\bar{u}\bar{c}\bar{o}$  | proto-Permian \* $\check{c}\bar{o}\bar{z}$  'mother's brother' > Ziryene  $\text{cho}\bar{z}$ , Letka & Udor Ziryene  $\check{c}\bar{o}\bar{z}$ , Votyak  $\check{c}\bar{u}\bar{z}\text{m}\bar{u}\text{r}\bar{t}$   $\check{c}\bar{u}\bar{z}\text{m}\bar{u}\text{r}\bar{t}$  id.,  $\check{c}\bar{u}\bar{z}\text{b}\bar{u}\text{b}\bar{y}$   $\check{c}\bar{u}\bar{z}\text{bub}\bar{y}$  'mother's father' || Lower Konda & Sosva Vogul  $\check{s}\bar{a}\bar{s}$ , Sosva Vogul  $\text{sasi}\bar{x}$  'uncle', Pelimka Vogul  $\check{s}\bar{a}\bar{s}\bar{s}\bar{a}$ -m 'my uncle' ||| Samoyedic \* $\acute{c}\bar{i}\bar{c}\bar{a}$  'mother's younger brother' > Tundra Nenets  $\text{ти}\bar{д}\bar{я}$ , Obdorsk dial.  $\acute{c}\bar{i}\bar{d}\bar{e}$ , Nganasan (der.)  $\text{t}\bar{t}\bar{i}\bar{d}\bar{a}$ , Taz Sölqup  $\text{ti}\bar{t}\bar{a}$  'mother's younger brother' ¶¶ In the prehistory of Uralic we may suppose an assimilation and dissimilation of sibilants:  $\approx * \acute{s}e\acute{z}A > ** \acute{c}e\acute{c}A > \acute{c}e\acute{c}\bar{a}$ .

[112] \* $\text{ḥ}|\chi\text{ṽ}|\text{w}ä\text{ñ}|\text{n}\text{ṽ}$  ‘relative [of a younger\the same generation] of the other moiety’ (> ‘brother/sister-in-law, son-in-law’) > **Ham.-Sem.:** Egyptian  $\text{ḥ}\omega\text{n}$  ‘boy, young man; (one’s) child, son’,  $\text{ḥ}\omega\text{n.t}$  ‘girl, virgin’,  $\text{ḥ}\omega\text{n}$  v. ‘become young’ || **Uralic** \* $\text{w}ä\text{N}\text{ṽ}$  > [1] Finno-Ugric \* $\text{w}ä\text{ñ}\text{ü}$  ‘daughter’s husband, younger brother’ > Finnish  $\text{v}ä\text{v}\text{y}$ , arch.  $\text{v}ä\text{y}$  ‘daughter’s husband’, Estonian  $\text{v}ä\text{i}$  id. | proto-Lapp \* $\text{v}\text{i}\text{v}\text{ṽ}$  id. > Norw. Lapp  $\text{v}\text{i}\text{v}\text{ṽ}$  id. | Moksha Mordvin  $\text{o}\text{v}$  id. | Highland Cheremis  $\text{w}\text{i}\text{ḡ}\text{x}\text{ə}$ , Eastern Cheremis  $\text{w}\text{e}\text{ḡ}\text{x}$  id. ||| Samoyedic \* $\text{w}ä\text{n}\text{ṽ}$  ‘relative-in-law’ > Tundra Nenets  $\text{y}\text{i}\text{y}$ , Forest Nenets  $\text{w}\text{i}\text{y}$  ‘younger relative’s husband’, Enets  $\text{b}\text{i}$  ‘brother-in-law, sister’s husband’, Nganasan  $\text{b}\text{i}\text{ḡ}|\text{-n}$  ‘daughter’s husband’, Taz Sölqup  $\text{k}\text{u}\text{e}\text{n}ä$ , Narim Sölqup  $\text{k}\text{u}\text{e}\text{n}\text{e}\text{k}$ , Karasino Sölqup  $\text{k}\text{u}\text{e}\text{n}\text{ə}\text{ḡ}$  ‘wife’s brother’, Tim Sölqup  $\text{k}\text{u}\text{ə}\text{n}^{\text{ḡ}}\text{ḡ}$  ‘svåger, svågerska’, Lower Taz Sölqup  $\text{k}^{\text{w}}\text{ṽ}\text{n}^{\text{ḡ}}\text{ḡ}$  ‘stepson, sister’s husband’ |||| ? Ural. \* $\text{w}\text{ə}\text{n}\text{ṽ}$  ‘bridegroom, relative-in-law’ > Kildin Lapp  $\text{v}\text{ü}\text{n}\text{t}\text{e}\text{m}$  ‘Freier, Bräutigam’ ||| Samoyedic: Tundra Nenets  $\text{y}\text{ä}\text{n}\text{e}$ , Forest Nenets  $\text{w}\text{ə}\text{n}\text{n}\text{i}$  ‘relative-in-law (durch Heirat verwandt, verschweigert)’ || **Altaic:** Tungusic \* $\text{b}\text{e}\text{n}\text{e}$ - ‘wife’s sibling’ > Ewenki  $\text{b}\text{ə}\text{n}\text{ə}\text{r}$ , Zeya & Sim Ewenki  $\text{b}\text{ə}\text{n}\text{ə}$  ‘wife’s brother, wife’s younger sister’, Lamut  $\text{b}\text{ə}\text{n}\text{ə}\text{r}$  ‘wife’s\husband’s younger sibling’, Negidal  $\text{b}\text{ə}\text{n}\text{ə}$  ‘wife’s younger sibling’, Orochi  $\text{b}\text{ə}\text{n}\text{ə}$  id., ‘wife’s younger sister’s husband’, Ude  $\text{b}\text{ə}\text{n}\text{ə}$ , Ulcha  $\text{b}\text{ə}\text{n}\text{ə}\text{i}$ ,  $\text{b}\text{ə}\text{n}\text{ə}\text{r}$  ‘wife’s younger brother’, Nanay  $\text{b}\text{ə}\text{n}\text{ə}\text{r}$ - ‘wife’s younger male cousin; nephew’ || ?? **Drav.** \* $\text{v}\text{ä}\text{n}\text{ə}$  ‘(elder) brother’s wife’ > Kolami  $\text{v}\text{ä}\text{n}\text{ə}$  ‘brother’s wife’, ? Pengo  $\text{o}\text{n}\text{i}$  ‘elder brother’s wife’, ? Konda  $\text{o}\text{n}\text{i}$  id., ‘maternal uncle’s daughter (older than person concerned)’ (unless the word of the Drav. languages is a loan from Prakrit  $\text{v}\text{ä}\text{h}\text{u}\text{n}\text{n}\text{i}$  ‘husband’s elder brother’s wife’).

[113] \* $\text{n}|\text{ñ}|\text{ü}\text{ṽ}$  or \* $\text{n}|\text{ñ}|\text{ü}\text{ṽ}\text{y}\text{ṽ}$  ‘woman’ (general term), ‘woman of the other moiety’ > **Hamito-Semitic:** Semitic \* $\text{n}\text{i}\text{ṣ}$ - ‘woman’ (used in pl. and with pl. endings only) > Arabic  $\text{n}\text{i}\text{s}-\text{ū}\text{n}\text{ə}$  ‘women’,  $\text{n}\text{i}\text{s}\text{ā}\text{ṽ}$ - id. (and through metanalysis: ✓  $\text{n}\text{i}\text{s}\text{w}$ , whence  $\text{n}\text{i}\text{s}\text{w}\text{ā}\text{n}-\text{un}$  ‘women’,  $\text{n}\text{i}\text{s}\text{w}-\text{at}-\text{un}$  ~  $\text{n}\text{u}\text{s}\text{w}-\text{at}-\text{un}$  ‘woman’), Syriac  $\text{n}\text{e}\text{ṣ}(\text{ṣ})-\text{ē}$  ‘women’, Hebrew  $\text{נִשְׁאָרִים}$   $\text{n}\text{i}\text{ṣ}-\text{ā}\text{ṽ}$  (\* $\text{ā}$  < \* $\text{a}$ , an apophonic \* $\text{a}$ -plural from \* $\text{n}\text{i}\text{ṣ}$ -, cp. \* $\text{b}\text{ā}\text{n}$ - ‘sons’ — a plural stem correlating with \* $\text{b}\text{i}\text{n}$ - ‘son’), Akkadian  $\text{n}\text{i}\text{ṣ}-\text{ū}$  ‘people’ (- $\text{ū}$  is a pl. marker; semantic contamination with \* $\text{ṽ}\text{i}\text{n}\text{ā}\text{ṽ}$  ‘person’ — \* $\text{ṽ}\text{u}\text{n}\text{ā}\text{ṽ}$  ‘people’) ||| Cushitic: proto-

Agaw \*<sup>h</sup>ṣ-at- 'woman' > Bilin ū's-ārī adj. 'female', pl. ū's-aŋ ~ ū's-ō, Khamir 'ōs-rē id. ||| Central Chadic: Mandara gr.: Dghwede níṣè, Gava núsà, Guduf nósà, Glavda nùsà 'woman' | Tera nuṣu id. || **Kartv.** \*nusa 'son's wife' > Laz nusa, Megrelian nosa id., Old Georgian nusa-dia 'uncle's wife' (lit. 'grand daughter-in-law') ¶¶ The Kartv. word may be either a loan from IE or an ancient Kartv. inherited lexeme. In the latter case \*nusa must go back to pre-Kartv. \*\*nuś∇ < \*\*nuśya < \*\*nusya < \*ṇḥuysa or \*ṇḥüysa || **Indo-Eur.** \*snuso-s 'son's wife' > Crimean Gothic schnos, Old High German snur, Anglo-Saxon snoru, Old Norse snor ~ snør id. ||| Greek νύς id. ||| Armenian nu id. ||| Latin nurus, -ūs id. (morphological reinterpretation on analogy with socrus, -ūs 'mother-in-law') ||| Old Indian snu'sā 'son's wife' ||| proto-Slavic \*snъxa id. > Old Church Slavonic **СНЪХА** snъxa, Russian снѡ'ха ||| Albanian nuse 'bride' ||| ?? Hittite nasartī/a- 'concubine'. ¶¶ The unexpected initial \*s may be explained by phrasal metanalysis: in phrases \*...-(0)s nuso-s '(somebody)'s son's wife' (where \*-(0)s is the genitive ending of the preceding noun) \*-s was reinterpreted as belonging to the following noun: \*...-(0)s nuso-s > \*...-(0)s snuso-s.

[114] \*<sup>h</sup>ic̣c̣x∇ or \*-č̣c̣-, \*-ʏlg̣h- 'father, head of a family' (→ or ← 'master, lord') > ? **Ham.-Sem.:** Semitic: Ge'ez ṭagzī? 'lord' (? ⇨ Ge'ez ṭgʒ? v. 'dominate, master') || **Indo-European:** Hittite isxa ~ esxa 'master, lord' || **Uralic** \*ičä 'father' > Finnish isä, Estonian isa id. | proto-Lappish \*zčē 'father' > North. Lapp ač'čē, Skolt Lapp ečč', Kildin Lapp ežč', Ter Lapp yīeččē id. | Highland Cheremis zä, Ufa Cheremis iza, Malmizh dial. iža 'elder brother; father's younger brother' ||| Lower Konda & Pelimka Vogul äš 'mother's brother' | Old Hungarian őś 'grandfather', Hungarian őś 'ancestor' ||| Samoyedic \*eyśä 'father' > Tundra Nenets нися, Forest Nenets н̄іе̄с̄:ä, Nganasan jase, 'десы, Enets есе, Taz Sölqup zst id. || **Altaic:** Turkic: Sari-Yughur ise 'owner, master (хозяин)' ||| Mongolic \*ezen 'lord, master' > Middle Mongolian ežen 'seigneur, maître; Herr', Class. Mong. ezen, Halha эзэн 'lord, master, ruler, owner'.



[115] **\*ʔediN** ‘pater familias’ (or ‘owner’?) > **Ham.-Sem.:** Semitic **\*ʔadān-** ‘lord, pater familias’ > Hebrew **ʔāḏōn** ‘lord’, Phoenician **ʔdn ʔadōn** (> Greek ἄδων-ις), Punic **ʔadōn** (with **ʔ-** ‘to’) ‘to the lord’, Ugaritic **ʔdn**, [in Akkadian script] **adānu** ‘father’, der.: Eblaite **a-da-na-du ʔadāntu(m)** ‘signoria, padronanza’, with the feminine suffix **\*-at-**: Phoenician, Palmyrian **ʔdt** (< **\*ʔadattu** < Semitic **\*ʔadān-atu**) ‘lady’ ||| Egyptian **ʔdnw** ‘Vertreter, Verwalter’, **ʔdn** ‘vertreten, verwalten’ || **Altaic** **\*edin** ‘master, lord, owner’ > Turkic **\*edi** ‘lord, host’ > Old Turkic **iḏi** ‘lord’, [Qutadgu Bilig] **idā id.**, Qizil **āzi** ‘Chinese emperor’, Lobnor **idi** ‘host’ ||| Mongolic **\*ezin** (< **\*edin**) > Middle Mongolian **ežen** ‘owner, lord, ruler, master’, **جيون** **ežin-ü** ‘(of the) owner’, Class. Mong. **ezen**, Halha **ezen** ‘owner, lord’, Kalmuck **ežn** id., Dagur **zžin** ‘lord, master, owner, king’ ||| Tungusic **\*edin** ‘husband’ > Ewenki, Negidal **zdi**, Lamut, Orok **zdi**, Ulcha **zdi(n-)**, Nanay **zži** id., Orochi **zdi** ‘male animal, husband’.

[116] **\*ʔemA** ‘mother’ > **Hamito-Semitic:** Semitic **\*ʔimm-** id. (pl. **\*ʔimmāh-āt-**) > Hebrew **אִמָּה** **ʔem** / **אִמִּי** **ʔimm-** (**ʔim'm-ī** ‘my mother’), pl. **ʔimmāhōt**, Phoenician **ʔm**, Ugaritic **ʔm** **\*ʔumm-**, pl. **ʔmh**, Jewish Aramaic, Syriac **ʔim'm-ā**, Arabic **ʔumm-**, Epigraphic South Arabian **ʔm**, pl. **ʔmh**, Ge'ez **ʔəm**, Mehri **h-ām**, indef. **ʔēm**, Harsusi **h-ām**, Central Jibbali **ʔem**, Soqotri **ʔem-** (with pronominal suffixes), Ge'ez **ʔamm**, pl. **ʔammāt**, Akkadian **ummu(m)** ‘mother’ ¶ The variant with **u** is due to the assimilating influence of **mm** ||| Berber **\*yimmā** ‘my mother’ > Kabyle, Beni-Menacer, Jerba, Sened **yamma**, Ghadamsi **yamma~imma**, Tashelhit **yemma~imma**, Beni-Snus, Beni-Iznasen, Rif, Srayr Senhazha, Kabyle **imma** ‘my mother’; the form **\*yimmā** may go back to **\*y-** ‘my’ + **\*ʔimmN** ‘mother’ ||| ? Highland East Cush. **\*ama** > Burji **amá~āma** ‘mother, woman, wife’, Darasa, Sidamo, Alaba **ama**, Hadiya **ama**, amoro ‘mother’, **ama(t)** ‘mater familias’, Kambatta **amata**, amayye (vocative) ‘mother’ ¶ This Highland East Cush. word may be an independent Lallwort without etymological connection with the Semitic and Berber words ||| ? Chadic: Central Chadic: Margi **ámà**, Kilba **ama**, Wamdiu **umà** ||| East Chadic: Kera **àmá** ‘mother’; this Chadic word may likewise be an independent nursery word || **Uralic** **\*emä** ‘mother, female’ > Finnish **emä** ‘female, mother, womb’, **emäsika** ‘sow’,

Estonian *ema* ‘mother, womb’, proto-Lappish *\*ēmē* ‘womb’ > South. Lapp *giemie* id. || Old Hungarian *eme* ‘female (animal), Hungarian (dial.) *eme* (acc. *emét*) ‘sow’, der.: Hungarian *embër* ‘person’, (dial.) ‘man’ ||| Samoyedic *\*emä* ‘mother’ > Tundra Nenets *небя нѣб\_е*, Forest Nenets *нѣме*, Somatu Enets *ē*, (+ pron. suffix 1 sg.) *ēb\_ō*, Nganasan *ńame* | Taz Sölqup *эм+*, Lower Taz Sölqup *ämä*, Turukhansk Sölqup *эм+* ‘mother’ | Koibal *имадъ*, Mator *имеда* ‘his mother’, *имамъ* ‘my mother’, Taigi *emma*, *emme* ‘mother’ || **Altaic** *\*eme* ‘mother, woman, female’ > Turkic *\*ämä* ‘mother, female’ (> ‘old woman’) > Qırghız *eme* ‘old woman’, Chuvash *ama* ‘mother, female’ ||| Mongolic *\*eme* ‘woman, female’ > Middle Mongolian *eme*, *eme gü’ün* ‘woman, wife’ (*gü’ün* means ‘person’), Class. Mong. *eme* ‘woman, wife, female’, Halha *em* ‘woman’, Buryat *eme* id., Class. Oirat *eme* ‘woman, female, lady’, Dongxiang *эмэ(kun)*, Baoan *эмэ(kuŋ)* ‘woman’, Monguor *imu* in *χara imu* ‘(black woman)’, ritual name given by a girl to herself in front of her parents the day of her marriage, Dagur *emehe aŋ-* ‘to marry (a woman)’ ||| Tungusic *\*em’e* ‘mother, woman, female’ > Ewenki *эмүгдэ* ‘female elk’, Solon *e’mo* ‘mother’, *em’ige* ‘wife’, Kur-Urmi Nanay *эмэхэ* ‘mother-in-law’, Class. Manchu *eme* ‘mother’, *emxe* ‘wife’s mother’, *emeke* ‘husband’s mother’, Sibe Manchu *eme* ‘mother’, *emxe* ‘husband’s mother’, *emhe* ‘wife’s mother’ ||| Korean: Middle Korean *ám*, Phyöngyang Korean *am* ◇ Words shaped as *a(m)ma* in individual IE languages (Old High German *amma* ‘mother’, Old Norse *amma* ‘nun’, Gheg Albanian *amë* ‘mother’), Elamite *am-ma* ‘mother’ and Drav. *\*amma* ‘mother’ (> Tamil *ammā*, Malayalam, Kannada, Telugu, Tulu *a m m a*, Kolami *amma*, Brahui *ammā* ‘mother’, Konda *ama* ‘grandmother’, Pengo, Manda, Kui *ama* ‘father’s sister’, Kuwi *amma* ‘aunt’) are unlikely to belong here, they are better explained as independent Lallwort-creations.

[117] *\*ʔaʔy* (or *\*hʔaʔy*?) ‘mother’ (originally a nursery word) (→ ‘female’): **Ham.-Sem.:** Cushitic *\*ʔay(y)-* > East Cushitic *\*ʔāyy-* ‘mother’ > Somali *āy-o* ‘stepmother’, Rendille *ʔāy-o* ‘mother’ (vocative), Boni *āʔy-ô*, Baiso *ā ~ āy-o*, Oromo *āyy-ō*, Konso *āy-ā* ‘mother’, Saho *āy-a* ‘older sister’, Hadiya *āyy-a* ‘sister’, *ay-minē* ‘mater familias’, Burji *āyʔy-ē* ‘mother,

mother's sister, father's brother's wife' || South Cushitic: Iraqw ayo, Alagwa, Burungi iyo 'mother' || ? **Indo-Eur.:** proto-Germanic \*aǵθī 'mother' > Gothic aipei id., Old Norse eiðā id., Old High German fuotar-eidī 'Amme', Middle Low German eide 'mother'; Germanic \*aǵθī → Finnish äiti, Estonian eit (gen. eide), Lule-Lapp eiti, Norw. Lapp æide 'mother' || ?? **Uralic:** Samoyedic: Kamassian iyā, yā, ya, Enets êṛ, eṛ 'mother' || **Dravidian** \*āy 'mother' > Tamil āy, āyi, Kannada āyi, Kolami aḷy, Gadba āya~aya, Gondi ayal, Konda, Pengo, Manda aya, Kui aḷa 'mother', Kuwi a(i)yā 'woman', Kurukh ayo 'mother', Malto ayya 'my mother'.

[118] ?? **\*ṛaba ~ \*ṛapa** 'daddy, father' (a nursery word) > **Ham.-Sem.:** Semitic \*ṛab- 'father' (nom. \*ṛab-u, -um, acc. \*ṛab-a, -am, gen. \*ṛab-i, -im) > Biblical Hebrew 'āb, st. c. ṛābī, st. pronominalis (with pron. suffixes) — ṛābī-/ṛābī- (e.g. ṛābī-kā 'thy father', ṛābī-kēm 'your (pl.) father'), Phoenician ṛb, st. c. ṛabī, Ugaritic ṛb, Biblical Aramaic ܪܒ \*ṛab, st. pron.: ṛābūk 'thy father', Jewish West Aramaic ṛab'ā, Syriac ṛabbā, Arabic ṛab-, st. c. ṛabū / ṛabā / ṛabī, st. pron. ṛabū- / ṛabā- / ṛabī-, Sabaic ṛb, Mehri def. 'hayb, pl. 'hayb, indef. 'īb, Harsusi hayb, pl. ḥōb, Jibbali C ṛiy, Soqotri ṛiyf-, Akkadian abu(m), with personal suffixes: abū-, abī- ||| East Cushitic \*ṛabb-/ṛabb- 'father' > Afar abba, Somali ābbe, Rendille aba, Baiso abbo, Oromo ābbaṛ, Konso āppa, Gidole āppā, Gawwada āppa; this root may be the source of East Cushitic \*ṛab-(-uyy-, -iyy-) 'maternal uncle' (derived from the word for 'father', cp. Latin patrūus?) > Afar abo, abu, Somali ab-tī, Oromo abuyya, Konso abuyyāta, Gidole apa, apuyy, Dulay apuyya, apiyya, Burji abuyyā ||| Chadic ≈\*ṛṇb- (~\*ṛap-) 'father' > West Chadic \*ṛṇb/p- 'father' > Hausa ùbā, Tsagu òbán, Pa'a ábatì, ábanáni, Jimbin, Diri àbá, Jimi abawa, Geji ábà, Ngizim àfák, Bade àfák ||| Central Chadic: ? Nzangi ābá (independent creation as a nursery word?), Buduma abú, àpá. àpá, Logone ṛàbà, Musgu ap, Musgum-Pus àpí, Zime-Batna ṛábà ||| East Chadic: Somray ṛab, Tumak òwè, ? Barein āba (independent creation?) || **Altaic** \*āba ~ \*āpa 'father, grandfather' > Turkic \*aba 'father, uncle, father's father' ('bear') > Old Turkic aba 'father, ancestor, bear', Chaghatay aba 'father', Türkmen (dial.) aba, Turkish (dial.), aba, appa,

Azeri (dial.) *aba*, East Turkic (Ili) *aba* ‘father’, Khakas *oba*, Chuvash *уба* *уба* ‘bear’ ||| Mongolic *\*aba* ‘father’ > Class. Mong. *abu*, Halha *ав*, *ав* ‘father, grandfather’, esp. applied to an old father (endeavouring), Class. Oirat-Mongolian *āba* ‘father, daddy’, Kalmuck *ав* *āp̄* id., Monguor *āb\_a*, Dongxiang *aba*, Baoan *ābe*; der.: Mongolic *\*aba-gay* ‘father’s younger brother’ > Middle Mongolian *abayā* ‘paternal uncle’, Class. Mong. *abaga* id., Halha *авга* id., Class. Oirat *abaḡa* id., Kalmuck *аβγ* id., Monguor *awu* ‘father’s younger uncle’ ||| Tungusic: Negidal *apa* ‘grandfather’ ||| Korean *\*ap̄i* > Middle Korean *ap̄i* ‘father’ || **Dravidian** *\*appa* ‘father’ > Tamil *appaṇ*, *appu* ‘father’, Malayalam *appan*, Kannada *appa*, Kodagu *appə* ‘father’, Tulu *appa*, *appæ* affix of respect added to proper names of men, Telugu *appa* ‘father’, Gondi *āp̄ōṛāṇi* ‘father’, ? *maṛpo* ‘my father’, ? *mi-apo* ‘thy father’, Konda *aposi* ‘father’ (with reference to the 3rd person) ◇ The common origin of the Ham.-Sem., Alt. and Drav. stems is questionable, since each of them may be an independent nursery word creation. The Lallwort origin may be responsible for the variability *\*-b-* ~ *\*-p-*.

[119] *\*ʕogul* | **V** ‘child, one’s child, to beget, to bear a child’ > **Ham.-Sem.:** ? Sem. *\*ʕigul-* ‘calf’ ||| Cush. *≈\*ʕʔkʷl* (or *\*ʕʔkʷl*) id. > Agaw *\*qʷʒr-* / *\*ʔʒqʷʒr-* v. ‘beget, child’ (< Early Agaw *\*\*ʕʔkʷlʔ*?) > Bilin *ʔʒxʷra* ‘boy’, f. *ʔʒqʷra* ‘daughter’, pl. *qʷʒr* ‘children’, Khamir (ʒ) *xʷʒr* ‘child’, pl. *ʒqʷʒr*, Kemant *xʷʒra* ‘child’, Bilin *ʔxʷär-*, Khamir *ʒxʷʒr-* v. ‘bear, beget’; Early Agaw *\*\*ʕʔkʷl-b* → Tigray *kʷɐlʕa* ‘child’ ||| Highland East Cush. *\*kʷal-* v. ‘give birth’ > Sidamo, Kambatta *kʷal-*, Hadiya *kʷār-* v. ‘give birth’ (of animals), Burji *kʷal-* v. ‘give birth’, *kʷála* ‘child’ ||| **Kartu.:** Lashkhi Svan *glaw-* ‘child, boy’ ||| **Altaic:** Turkic *\*ogul* ‘offspring, child’ (‘male child’) > Old Turkic *oγul* ‘offspring, child’, Chaghatay *oγul* ‘son’, Türkmen, Azeri, East Turkic, Sarı-Yughur, Lobnor, Halaj *oγul*, Turkish *oğul*, Qizıl *oγıl*, Uzbek *oγıl*, Qırghız, Altay *ul*, Qaraqalpaq *ul*, Qazaq *ul*, Volga Tatar, Bashqurt *ul*, Tuva *ul*, Tofalar *ul*, Yakut *uol*, Old Bulghar *ul* *uwal*, Chuvash *ывăл* *ivɐl* ‘son’, Khakas (Sagay, Kachin) *ul*, Qizıl *oγıl* ‘young man, son’ ||| **Gilyak:** Amur Gilyak *ulə* ‘son’.

[120] \*ʔarʔ ‘member of the clan’ > **Ham.-Sem.:** Semitic \*ʔarʔ, y- > Ugaritic ʔary ‘relative, member of the clan’ ||| Egyptian ʔry ‘belonging to; comrade’, Demotic Egyptian ʔry ‘comrade’, Coptic: Bohairic ēr ‘comrade, friend’, Sahidic er iʔ, Bohairic ar iʔ, er iʔ ‘comrades’ ||| Cushitic: Beja ʔaraw ‘friend’ || **Indo-European:** Narrow Indo-European \*aryo- ‘member of the tribe’ > Old Indian 'aryaḥ ‘master of the house’, ar'yaḥ ‘(hospitable) lord’, 'ār(i)ya- ‘an Aryan person’, Avestan airyō, Old Persian ariya- ‘Median, Aryan (person)’, proto-Indo-Iranian \*arya- > Finno-Ugric (or Finno-Permian) \*orya ‘slave’ > Finnish orja ‘slave’, Estonian ori ‘slave, bondsman’ | Erzya-Mordvin uře, Moksha-Mordvin tpe uřa ‘slave, servant’ | proto-Permian \*ver ‘slave’ (‘vir’) > Old Permian wer ‘servant, slave’, Ziryene pi-ver ‘husband’s brother’ (pi ‘son’), Ziryene (dial.) ver-čeri ‘male fish’ (čeri ‘fish’), Votyak var, war ‘slave, servant’ ||| Old Irish aire ‘free person’ (> ‘chief, prince’) || ? **Ural.:** Ugric \*arʔ or \*arwa ‘relative belonging to one’s mother’s clan’, ‘mother’s (younger) brother’ > Old Hungarian ara ‘brother’, (early 18th c.) ‘Schwiegertochter’, Hungarian ara ‘bride’ (attested from 1792; a lexical innovation in the framework of the Hungarian ‘language renewal’) | Ob-Ugric: Kazim Ostyak wɔr-ti ‘mother’s younger brother, his male descendants, his son’, Northern (Obdorsk) Ostyak or-ti, or-di ‘mother’s brother’; Middle Lozva Vogul oār, Northern Vogul ār ‘mother’s relative’.

## 9. The realm of the supernatural

Once I was asked by a journalist: ‘Is there a Nostratic word for God?’. I had to disappoint the gentleman: in the Nostratic lexical stock this concept has not been detected. The words for gods in the descendant languages usually go back to the name of a natural phenomenon associated with the deity in question. Indo-European \*dyēus (> Greek Ζεύς, Old Indian dyaus ‘god’, etc.) originally means ‘daylight’, \*deiwos (> Latin deus, Old Indian dēvas, Lithuanian diēvas ‘god’) goes back to an adjective ‘that of the daylight’. Finno-Ugric \*yuma (whence Finnish jumala, Estonian jumal, Highland Cheremis yama ‘God’) originally means ‘sky’ (> ‘heaven’), whence Ufa Cheremis yumo ‘sky’.

But Nostratic is rich in words denoting magic activity:

[121] \***arba** ‘to make magic, cast spells’ > **Ham.-Sem.:** ? Sem. \* $\sqrt{\text{ar}}\text{b}$  v. ‘be cunning’ > Biblical Hebrew אָרַב  $\sqrt{\text{ar}}\text{b}$  v. ‘lie in wait, prepare an ambush’ (← \*v. ‘be cunning’), Official Aramaic אָרַב  $\sqrt{\text{ar}}\text{b}$  ‘ambush’, Safa’itic  $\text{m}\omega\text{rb}$  ‘intrigant, comploteur’, Thamudic  $\omega\text{rb}$  ‘se mettre en embuscade’ || **Uralic:** Finno-Ugric \*arpa > Finnish arpa (gen. arvan) ‘lot, magic stick or any other magic tool for finding hidden things, soothsaying, etc.’, arpa-mies ‘soothsayer’ (mies is ‘man’), arpo- v. ‘cast lots’, Estonian arp ‘lot, magic’, Livonian aŗbī ‘witch’, proto-Lapp \* $\sqrt{\text{v}\text{or}}\text{p}\bar{\text{e}}$  > Norwegian Lapp (after Friis)  $\text{v}\text{uor}\text{b}\text{be}$  ‘sors secunda, fortuna; anulus oricalchi, in membranam tympani magici, quoties pulsabatur, imponendus’, Norw. Lapp  $\text{v}\text{uor}\text{b}\text{be}$  ‘each of the two or more pieces of wood, stones etc., used by persons who are going to cast lots about something; lot; destiny’, Lule Lapp  $\text{v}\text{uor}\text{p}\bar{\text{e}}$  ‘Glück, Los, Geschick’ || **Altaic:** Turkic \*arba- v. ‘make magic, cast spells’ > Old Turkic arva-, Chaghatay, Qırghız, Qaraqalpaq, Bashqurt, Khakas arba-, East Turkic arba-  $\text{arva-}$ , Sarı-Yughur arva- id., Qazaq arba- v. ‘tempt, seduce, try to win smb. over by deceit’, Yakut arbā- v. ‘flatter, exaggerate’, Old Turkic arviš ‘a magic spell, or charm’ (→ Votyak urveś, urbeć ‘remedy for evil eye’ ?), Chaghatay arviš-čī ‘sorcerer’ (a Turkic — most probably, Bulghar — word is probably the source of Votyak urveś, urbeć ‘Waldgeist; a person inflicting illness by magic’, Hungarian orvos, [dial.] óros, órvas, órvos, urus ‘physician’, as well as of Bulgarian врач ‘sorcerer’ and Russian врач ‘physician’).

[122] \***ar** ‘to burn (esp. sacrifices), use magic means (sacrifices, magic formulae etc.) to produce a particular result’ > **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. \* $\sqrt{\text{ar}}\text{w}$  v. ‘infringe, act perversely’ > Syriac  $\sqrt{\text{ar}}\text{w}$  in  $\text{ar}\text{w}\text{l}\bar{\text{e}}$  v. ‘act perversely’,  $\text{ar}\text{w}\text{l}\bar{\text{e}}$  ‘scelus, injuria’; Sem. \* $\sqrt{\text{ar}}\text{w}$  v. ‘burn a sacrifice’ > Biblical Hebrew אָרַב ~ אָרַב ~ אָרַב, Biblical Aramaic אָרַב אֱלֹהִים  $\text{ar}\text{w}\text{l}\bar{\text{e}}$  ‘burnt-offering, holocaust’, Imperial Aramaic (Elephantine) אָרַב אֱלֹהִים  $\text{ar}\text{w}\text{l}\bar{\text{e}}$ , Samaritan Aramaic אָרַב אֱלֹהִים  $\text{ar}\text{w}\text{l}\bar{\text{e}}$ , Jewish Aramaic אָרַב אֱלֹהִים  $\text{ar}\text{w}\text{l}\bar{\text{e}}$  ‘sacrifice’, Syriac אָרַב אֱלֹהִים  $\text{ar}\text{w}\text{l}\bar{\text{e}}$  ‘offering, holocaust, sacrifice; altar’, Palmyrene אָרַב אֱלֹהִים  $\text{ar}\text{w}\text{l}\bar{\text{e}}$  ‘altar’ || **Indo-European** \* $\sqrt{\text{h}}\text{el-}$  (≈ \* $\sqrt{\text{h}}\text{al-}$ ) v. ‘burn, burn sacrifices’ > Old Indian alātam ‘a fire-brand, coal’ (← \*‘burnt’) || ? Greek [Hesychius] ἄλβη ‘coal’ || Latin altāria n. pl. ‘altar (for

sacrifice)' (< \*al-t-āli-), ad-oleō 'I am burning (a sacrifice)', Umbrian uřetu 'in order to burn' (< Italic \*ol-) || Swedish ala v. 'flame' || ? **Kartvelian** \*<sub>l</sub>hal- v. 'flame', 'flame' > Georgian al-i 'flame', al- (1 sg. v-a-al-eb) 'aufflammen lassen', al-d-eba 'flammt auf', IngLOURI Georgian hal- v. n. 'flame, burn', Svan həl ɬ hal 'flame' || **Uralic**: Finno-Ugric \*al▽- v. 'exercise magic forces, sacrifice' > Old Hungarian áld- v. 'sacrifice', Hungarian áld- v. 'bless', áldoz- v. 'sacrifice', áldozás 'holy communion', proto-Ostyak \*al- > Vakh Ostyak al+l- v. 'curse; to scold', al+lta köl 'Fluchwort, malediction', al+m- v. 'curse, call down curses upon' || Erzya-Mordvin alta- v. 'promise, devote', (acc. to Jevsevjev) v. 'doom' || Cheremis ulša-, ulte- v. 'prey, pronounce a prayer' || **Altaic**: Turkic \*āl > Old Turkic āl 'device' (esp. 'dishonourable device'), 'deceit, guile, dirty trick', Turkish (dial.) al 'ruse, trick', Türkmen āl id., Azeri (dial.) al 'ruse, deceit, a lie', Chaghatay, Uighur al 'Schlauheit, List, Betrug, Strategie'; ? Turkic \*alqa- v. 'bless, praise, conjure (supernatural spirits)' > Old Turkic alqa- v. 'praise' (both in a religious and the ordinary sense), v. 'bless', Qumuq, Qırghız, Qazaq alqa-, Tuva alɣa- v. 'bless', Standard Altay alqa- v. 'bless, praise, thank', Khakas alɣa- v. 'bless, thank', Yakut alɣa- v. 'bless, praise, pray, conjure (supernatural spirits), cast a spell' ⇨ Ewenki alga- v. 'bless, pray', alga 'blessing' || || ? Korean alcin alcin haɟa 'to deceive, adulate'.

[123] \*šot▽ 'to exercise magic force' (> 'to curse, bless') > **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. \*✓šwṭ (> \*✓šyṭ) v. 'harm by magic' > Arabic šiwāṭ- ~ šuwāṭ- 'calomnie, injure', ✓šyṭ (2nd form) v. 'expose (smbd.) to death, to ruin'; Semitic \*✓šṭn v. 'bear ill-will, be hostile, attack, bear ill-will by words, accuse' > Biblical Hebrew ✓šṭn id., ַשְׂטָן šāṭān 'adversary' (> 'Satan'), Aramaic ✓sṭn v. 'be hostile', Arabic ✓šṭn v. 'oppose (smbd.)'; Semitic \*✓štm > Arabic ✓štm v. 'insult, revile, vilify' || || Egyptian štm 'heftig werden (beim Sprechen), verleumden' || **Uralic**: Finno-Ugric \*šot'a ' (magic) force', v. 'curse' (> 'cause damage to'), v. 'bless' > ? Finnish sota, Estonian sõda 'war, battle', Finnish soti-, Estonian sõdi- v. 'wage war' || proto-Mordvin \*šūd- > Erzya-Mordvin šudo-, Moksha-Mordvin šud- v. 'curse' || Eastern Cheremis šu'ḏem v. 'curse, invoke curses (on smbd's

head), execrate', Lowland Cheremis 'ṣ̌uḡḡṣ̌ 'curses, execration', Highland Cheremis ṣ̌uḡḡṣ̌ 'damnation, invocation' ||| proto-Ob-Ugric \*ṣ̌ōt > proto-Vogul \*ṣ̌āt 'luck' > Tavda Vogul ṣ̌āt, Northern Vogul sōt ʒ Ss sōt; proto-Ostyak \*sōt/\*sot 'force, power' > Kazim Ostyak sōt, Obdorsk Ostyak sōt || **Dravidian** (ambiguous) \*ḱōṭṭə 'insinuation, disparaging remark; defect, blame' > Tamil ḱōṭṭu 'defect, insinuation', Malayalam ḱaṭṭu 'fault', Telugu soḱḱu 'defect, fault; blame, imputation' ¶¶ The Drav. word may alternatively belong together with Kartv. \*ḱōḱodw- v. 'sin'.

[124] ≈\*tuṽ 'to tell (a story), pronounce magic\ritual texts' > **Ham.-Sem.:** Semitic \*ṭuṽ, \*ṭuṽ > Arabic tuṽal- 'magic art, witchcraft' ||| Berber \*ṭiḥ > Shawiya ṭiḥ v. 'speak, talk' ||| ? Cushitic: East Cush.: Somali ṭalo 'parere, opinione; consiglio, proposta', ṭali- v. 'decide, advise', Somali ṭālo 'decision' ||| South Cushitic: Kwadza ṭulatu 'court case' ||| ? Agaw: Bilin, Kwara ṭelā, Khamir ṭelā, Kemant ṭilā 'medicine, drug (Arznei)' ||| **Indo-Eur.** \*deṽ > Hittite ṭalliya- v. 'invoke (gods)', Lycian B ṭali '(heathen) priest' ||| Germanic \*ṭalō 'narration', \*ṭaljan 'to tell, narrate' > Old Norse ṭala 'speech, conversation', Anglo-Saxon ṭalu 'narration' (> English tale), Middle Low German ṭale 'speech', Middle Dutch ṭael, tale 'speech, language', Old High German zala 'Bericht'; Old Norse ṭala 'to speak, talk', Anglo-Saxon ṭalian 'rechnen, meinen', ṭellan 'to narrate', English tell ||| **Uralic:** Finno-Ugric \*ṭuṽ 'witchcraft' > Hungarian ṭáltos 'sorcerer, shaman; magic horse' | Ob-Ugric \*ṭṽ:lt > proto-Ostyak \*ṭolt/\*ṭolt > Northern Ostyak ṭolt 'giant' (← 'sorcerer'), ṭoltn, ṭolten 'mit Zauberkraft', Vasyugan Ostyak ṭolt 'fever', Kazim Ostyak ṭḡṭ 'Hilfe; Linderung (bei einer Krankheit, in der Armut)', ṭḡṭa 'without effort, without noise; suddenly'; proto-Vogul \*ṭūlt > North. Vogul ṭūltan, ṭūltne 'leicht, einfach' (← \*'by witchcraft').

In the framework of one book it is hardly possible to refer to the Nostratic perspective of *all* aspect of life and culture. If there are any desiderata as to specific questions or fields, I shall be happy to do my best to satisfy the readers' interest.



# *Phonetic Correspondences*

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Main Phonetic Correspondences of Consonants in the Nostratic Languages

Nostratic consonant chart

Stops and affricates			Fricatives		Central approximants	Nasals	Lateral sonants	Vibrants
Voiced	Voiceless	Emph.	Voiced	Voiceless				
b	p	p <sup>ʔ</sup>			w	m		
d	t	t <sup>ʔ</sup>				n	l	
						ṇ = ŋ	ʃ	r
ʒ	c	c <sup>ʔ</sup>	z	s				
ʒ̣	č	č <sup>ʔ</sup>	ž	š				
ʒ̣̣	č̣	č̣ <sup>ʔ</sup>	ẓ̌	ṣ̌	y	ɲ	ʎ	ɾ
ʒ̣̣̣	č̣̣	č̣̣ <sup>ʔ</sup>	ẓ̣̌	ṣ̣̌				
g	k	k <sup>ʔ</sup>				ŋ		
q	q	q̣	ʕ	χ				
				ħ (= h <sup>ʔ</sup> )	ʕ			
	ʔ			h				

**Symbols in the chart:** affricates: ʒ = d͡z, c = t͡s, ʒ̣ = d͡ẓ, č = t͡ṣ, ʒ̣̣̣ = d͡ẓ̣̣, č̣̣̣ = t͡ṣ̣̣; lateral obstruents: ʒ̣̣̣̣, č̣̣̣̣, č̣̣̣̣<sup>ʔ</sup>, ẓ̣̣̣̌, ṣ̣̣̣̌ — lateralized ʒ, c, c<sup>ʔ</sup>, z, s; palatalized consonants: ʒ̣̣̣̣̣, č̣̣̣̣̣, č̣̣̣̣̣<sup>ʔ</sup>, ẓ̣̣̣̣̌, ṣ̣̣̣̣̌, ɲ̣̣̣̣̣, ʎ̣̣̣̣̣, ɾ̣̣̣̣̣ = palatalized ʒ, c, c<sup>ʔ</sup>, z, s, n, l, r; uvular stops: g, q, q̣ = uvular g, k, k<sup>ʔ</sup>; uvular fricatives: χ = Spanish j, ʕ = Arabic ح; epiglottal (pharyngeal) consonant: voiceless ħ (= h<sup>ʔ</sup> = Arabic ح), voiced ʕ (= Arabic ع).

In the following table of sound correspondences the symbol ‘-’ denotes zero. The sign ‘:’ symbolizes the lengthening of the preceding vowel, ‘⌊:’ denotes lengthening of the consonant. The sign ‘⌊’ denotes glottalization of an adjacent consonant, but in Nostratic reconstruction it denotes emphatic consonants without specifying the phonetic nature of the emphasis, ‘⌊’ is uvularization of the consonant, ‘⌊’ is its tensification (transformation of a lax consonant into a tense one [fortis]), ‘⌊\_’ is its devoicing, ‘⌊’ is its retroflexivization, ‘⌊<sup>u</sup>’ is its palatalization. The symbol ° denotes here labialization of the adjacent vowel, the sign ° denotes its palatalization. Within conditioning formulas, ‘\_U’ means ‘before a labial vowel’, ‘\_E’ means ‘before a palatal vowel’. IE +\*(S)- denotes the addition of the initial IE \*S mobile as a reflex of N word-middle palatal elements. The symbol ‘\*\*’ is used for working hypotheses: in cases when we have sufficient factual confirmation for a group of N phonemes only rather than for each individual N phoneme, e.g. in the case of \*n and \*ñ, where a distinction is possible only if the phoneme is represented in Ostyak, so that in daughter languages without \*n|ñ-roots common with Ostyak we cannot find formal proof of representation of N \*n and N \*ñ separately, but only representation of unspecified \*n|ñ. In such cases we suppose (as a working hypothesis) that both phonemes (in the case described \*n and \*ñ) are reflected in the same way, which is symbolized by ‘\*\*’. The letter ‘N’ symbolizes an unspecified non-labial nasal consonant, ‘L’ is an unspecified lateral sonorant. IE \*G = \*g|g<sup>u</sup>|g̃, \*G<sup>h</sup> = \*g<sup>h</sup>|g<sup>h</sup><sup>u</sup>|g̃<sup>h</sup>. M \*G = \*g|g, \*K = \*k|q.

The following abbreviations are used: N = Nostratic; S = Semitic; Eg = Egyptian; B = Berber; K = Kartvelian; IE = Indo-European; U = Uralic; T = Turkic; M = Mongolic; Tg = Tungusic; D = Dravidian.

N	S	Eg	B	K	IE	U	T	M	Tg	D
*b-	*b	b	*b	*b	*b <sup>h</sup>	*p	*b	*b	*b	*p
*b-	*b	b	*b, *β	*b	*b <sup>h</sup>	*w, ⌊_/*p	*b	*b	*b	*v
*p-	*p	f	*f	*p	*p, *b	*p	*p, *b	*p	*p	*p
*p-	*p	f	*f	*p	*p, *b	*p, v	*p	*b, *β>*v	*p	*v
*p <sup>u</sup> -	*p	p	*f	*p, *p <sup>u</sup>	*p	*p	*h>*-	*p	*p	*p
*p <sup>u</sup> -	*p	p	*f	*p, *p <sup>u</sup>	*p	*pp	*p	*b	*p	*pp
*d-	*d	d	*d	*d	*d <sup>h</sup>	*t	*j	*d, _i/*ʒ	*d	*t
*d-	*d	d	*d	*d	*d	*ʒ	*ʒ	*d	*d	*t/tt
*t-	*t	t	*t	*t	*d	*t	*t	*d, _i/*ɕ	*d	*t
*t-	*t	t	*t	*t	*d	*t	*t	*d	*d	*t/tt, *t/tt
*t <sup>u</sup> -	*t <sup>u</sup> , *t	d	*d	*t <sup>u</sup>	*t	*t	*t	*t, *t i/*ɕ		*t

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N	S	Eg	B	K	IE	U	T	M	T g	D
*-t <sup>1</sup> -	*t <sup>1</sup> , *t	d, t	*g, *t	*t <sup>1</sup>	*t	*tt	*t	*t	*t	*tt/t
*g-	*g	g, ʒ	*g	*g	*g <sup>h</sup> , *g <sup>h</sup> , *g <sup>wh</sup>	*k	*k', *k'	*g, *g	*g	*k
*-g-	*g	g, ʒ	*g	*g	*g <sup>h</sup> , *g <sup>h</sup> , *g <sup>wh</sup>	*ɣ	*g	*g	*g	*:-
*k-	*k	k, c	*k, *g?	*k	*g, *g̃, *g <sup>w</sup>	*k	*k̃	*k, *q	*k	*k
*-k-	*k	k, c		*k	*g, *g̃, *g <sup>w</sup>	*k	*g, *k	*g, *g	*g	*k
*k <sup>1</sup> -	*k <sup>1</sup> , *k	ḳ, k	*ɣ	*k <sup>1</sup>	*k, *k̃, *k <sup>w</sup>	*k	*k', *k̃	*k, *q	*x	*k
*-k <sup>1</sup> -	*k <sup>1</sup>	ḳ	*ɣ, *k	*k <sup>1</sup>	*k, *k̃, *k <sup>w</sup>	*kk	*k	*k, *q	*k	*kk
*g-	*ɣ	ɣ?		*ɣ	*x, *x <sup>w</sup> , [*x̃?]	*-	*-	*-	*-	*-
*-g-	*ɣ	H		*ɣ	*x, ?*h̃	*-, ?*ɣ	*-	*-	*-, ?*g	*-
*q-	*x	x	*H	*q	*x, *x <sup>w</sup> , [*x̃?]	*-	*-	*-	*-	*-
*-q-	*x	x	*H	*q	*H	*-	*-	*-, *g, ?*g	*-	*-
*g-	*k <sup>1</sup> , *x	ḳ, x	*ɣ	*q	*k, *k̃, *k <sup>w</sup>	*k	*k', *k̃	*k, *q	*x	*k
*-g-	*k <sup>1</sup>	ḳ	*ɣ	*q	*k, *k̃, *k <sup>w</sup>	*k, *kk	*k	*k, *q	*k	*k *kk
*-ʒ-	*z	ʒ?		*ʒ=*ʒ <sub>1</sub>	*s	*s	*j	*ʒ?	*j	*c
*-ʒ-	*z	ʒ?		*ʒ=*ʒ <sub>1</sub>	*s	*s	*j	*ʒ?	*j?	*t?
*-c-	*s			*c=*c <sub>1</sub>	?(s)K	*c̃	*c̃	*c̃?	*c̃	*c̃
*-c-	*s	?c	*s	*c=*c <sub>1</sub>	?(s)K	*c̃	*c̃?	*c̃?	*c̃	*c̃
*-c <sup>1</sup> -	*c <sup>1</sup>			*c <sup>1</sup> =*c <sup>1</sup> <sub>1</sub>	?(s)K	*c̃	*c̃	*c̃	*c̃	*c̃
*-c <sup>1</sup> -	*c <sup>1</sup> , *s	?ʒ		*c <sup>1</sup> =*c <sup>1</sup> <sub>1</sub>	*s	*s	*c̃	*c̃	*c̃	*c̃
*-s-	*š	s	*s	*š=*s <sub>1</sub>	*s	*s	*s	*s	*s	*c̃
*-s-	*š	s	*s	*š=*s <sub>1</sub>	*s	*s	*s	*s	*s	*c̃
*-z-	*z			*ž=*z <sub>1</sub>	*H	*s	*j	*s	*s	*c̃
*-z-	*z	z?	*z	*ž=*z <sub>1</sub>	*H	*s		*s, *y		
*-ʒ-	*z	z?		*ʒ	*s	*c̃	*j	*ʒ?	*j?	
*-ʒ-	*z			*ʒ, *z	*s	*c̃		*ʒ		*c̃
*-č-	*s		*s	*c	*sK	*c̃	*c̃		*c̃	*c̃
*-č-	*s			*c	*s	*c̃	*c̃?	*c̃?		*c̃
*-č <sup>1</sup> -	*c <sup>1</sup>			*c <sup>1</sup>	*sK	*c̃	*c̃		*c̃	*c̃
*-č <sup>1</sup> -	*c <sup>1</sup> , *s	?ʒ	*s	*c <sup>1</sup>	*s	*c̃(č)	*c̃	*c̃?		*c̃(č)
*-š-	*š	s	*s	*s	*s	*š	*s	*s	*s	*c̃
*-š-	*š	s	*s	*s	*s	*š	*s	*s	*s	*c̃
*-ž-	*z			*z	*H	*š	*j	*s	*s	*c̃
*-ž-	*z	z?, š?	*z?	*z	*H	*š		*ʒ?		*c̃

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N	S	Eg	B	K	IE	U	T	M	Tg	D
*š-	*š	z?		*š	*s	*č,?*y ?*š	*j	*ʒ	*j	*č,?*t
*š-	*š	z, d		*š	*s, *d, *sd?	*š	*š	*ʒ,?*d	*j?	
*č-	*θ			*č	*(s)t-	*č	*č	*č	*č	*č
*č-	*θ	*j								
*č-	*θ	*č	*s	*č	*s	*č	*č	*č	*č?	*č
*č-	*θ			*č	*(s)t	*č	*č	*č	*č	*č
*č-	*θ	z		*č	*th, *sT	*č	*č	*č	*č	*č
*š-	*š	s	*s	*š	*s	*š	*s	*s	*s	*č
*š-	*š	s	*s	*š	*s	*š	*s	*s	*s	*č
*ž-	*š	*z		*z	*H	*š			*s?	
*ž-	*š,?*z	*z	*z	*ž, *z	*H	*š			*j?	
*ž-	*š	*s		*ž	*j	*λ	*j	*ʒ	*j?	*č
*č-	*š	š	*s	*ž	*j	*ž	*j			*t, *tt
*č-	*š	š	*s	*č	*s	*č	*č	*č	*č	*č
*č-	*š	š		*č	*s	*č	*č	*č	*č	*č
*č-	*š	*z	*z	*č		*š	*č	*č	*č	*č
*č-	*š	z		*č	*s	*č	*č	*č	*č	*č
*š-	*š	š		*š=*s <sub>1</sub>	*s, *ks	*š	*s	*s	*s, *š	*č
*š-	*š	š		*š=*s <sub>1</sub>	*s	*š	*s	*s	*s, *j	*č
*ž-	*š	š		*j	*j	*l, *š	*j	*s	*s	*n
*ž-	*š	*n	*s	*j	*j	*ž	*j	*j	*j	*j
*y-	*y			*y	*X	*-	*-	*-	*-	*-
*y-	*y	*y	*H	*y, *X	*X	*-, *y	*-	*-	*-	*-, *
*X-	*h	h	*H	*X	*X	*-	*-	*-	*-	*-
*X-	*h	h	*H	*X	*X	*-	*-, *	*-	*-, *	*-
*y-	*y	y	*H	*-	*H	*-	*-	*-	*-	*-
*y-	*y	y	*H	*-	*H	*-, *	*-, *	*-	*-, *	*-
*h-	*h	h, x	*H	*-	*H	*-	*-	*-	*-	*-
*h-	*h	h	*H	*-	*H	*-	*-, *	*-	*-	*-
*h-	*h	*h		*-	*X	*-	*-	*-	*-	*-
*h-	*h, *-	h, -	*-	*-	*X	*-	*-, *	*-	*-, *	*-, *
*j-	*j	j, z	*j, *H	*-	*j=*-	*-	*-	*-	*-	*-
*j-	*j	z, y, -	*-, *j	*-, *j	*-, *	*j=*-	*-, *	*-	*-, *	*-
*m-	*m		*m	*m	*m	*m	*b m	*m, _#/*b	*m, _#/*b	*m
*m-	*m	m	*m	*m	*m	*m	*m	*m	*m	*m
*n-	*n	n	*n	*n	*n	*n	*j	*n	*n	*n
*n-	*n	n	*n	*n	*n	*n	*n	*n	*n	*n
*n-	*n	n	*n	*n	*n, **kn	*n	*j	*n	*n, *j	*n

N	S	Eg	B	K	IE	U	T	M	Tg	D
*-ñ-	*n	n	*n	**n	*n	*n	*n	*n	*n	*-ñ-, t/n
*ñ-	*n	n	*n	*n	*ñ	*ñ	*ñ (<*ñ)	*n	*ñ	*n
*-ñ-	*n		*n	*n	*ñ, ?*n	*ñ	*ñ > *y	?*n	*N	*N
?*ñ-	*n ?				*n	*n, ?*-	*-, *ñ	*-, *n	*ñ	?*n
*-ñ-	*n, *m	n	*n	*n	*n, *ng <sup>h</sup> , *ng <sup>h</sup> , *ng <sup>wh</sup>	*ñ	*ñ	*ñ, *ng, *ng *ñK	*ñ	*ñk
*ñ-	*ñ	? ñ	*ñ		*ñ	*ñ	*ñ	*n	?*ñ	??*t
*-ñ-	*ñ	r ? , ß	*ñ	*ñ	*ñ	*ñ	*ñ	*ñ	*ñ	*ñ
*ñ-	*ñ	?n	*ñ	*ñ	*ñ	*ñ	*ñ	*n	*ñ	*ñ
*-ñ-	*ñ		*ñ	*ñ	*ñ	*ñ	*ñ	*ñ	*ñ	*ñ
*ñ-	*ñ		?*ñ	*ñ	*ñ	*ñ	?*ñ	?*ñ,	?*ñ	*ñ, **n
*-ñ-	*ñ	r, ß	*ñ	*ñ	*ñ	*ñ	*ñ	*ñ	*ñ	*ñ
*r-	*r	r	?*r	*r	*r	*r	*ñ	?*n	*ñ,	*n
*-r-	*r	r, ß	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*ñ; *r (<*r⊥)
*-r-	*r	r, ß	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r; _⊥/*r	*r	*r	*ñ
*w-	*w	w	*w	*w	*w	*w	*b, *p	*b	*b, ? *p	*w, _⊥/*-
*-w-	*w	w, ß	?*w	*w, *-	*w	*w	*b, *-	*b, *b	*b	*w
/V_V										
*-w-	*w, *-	??-, y	??*w	*w, *-	*w, *-	*w, *-		*b, *-	*b, *-	*-
/⊥_V										
*-w-⊥	*w, *-			*w	*w	*w, *p	?*p	*-, *p	*-	*-,
/a, E										
?*w										
*-w-	*		?*	*-, *w	*-, *-	*-	*	*-		*
/u_⊥										
*y-	*y	ï	?*y, *i	*-, ?*y	*ñ, *eñ	*y	*ñ	*y	?*y	*-
*-y-	*y	y, -	*y	*-	*ñ/*i	*y	*y	*y	*y,	*y, *-
/V_V										
*-y-	*y, *-	?-	*-	*-	*-, *ñ,	*y, *⊥y	*⊥y, *-, *	*-, *y	*-,	*-, *⊥
/⊥_V					+*(S)-				*⊥y, *ñ	
*-y-	*y, *-	y, -	?*y	*-	*ñ, *-	*y, *⊥y	*-, *⊥y	*-, *y	*ñ, *ñ	*-, *y
/V_⊥										





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*Note:* For considerations of space I have been obliged to skip all bibliographical references and indications of my predecessors and colleagues who were the first to propose some important inter-family comparisons (V. Illich-Svitych, B. Collinder, K.H. Menges, V. Blažek, M. Räsänen, V. Shevoroshkin, V. Terentyev, S. Starostin, E. Helimski, H. Fähnrich, S.A. Tyler, Th. Burrow, A. Gluhak, A. Bomhard, G. Klimov, G. Takács, B. Čop, I. Hegedűs, K. Bouda, and others). The necessary references and acknowledgements will appear in my *Nostratic Dictionary* (in preparation).

# ***Index of Nostratic Words***

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## Index of Nostratic words (mentioned in the book):

- [1] \*ʔibrE ‘fig tree’
- [2] \*čʰiʼbɔʔʔ (or \*čʰiʼbɔʔʔ) ‘hyena’
- [3] \*ʔuʼrɔwɔ ‘large feline’
- [4] \*SiwɔŋgE ‘leopard’
- [5] \*ʔoʳʰuʼ ‘antelope (male), deer’
- [6] \*maŋʳgʼɔ or \*maNɿiʳgʼɔ ‘monkey’
- [7] \*šüŋU ‘snow’
- [8] \*čaíUɿgɔ ‘snow’ or ‘hoar-frost’
- [9] ?? \*čʰaʼRʔɔ ‘hoar-frost’, (>) ‘frozen soil’
- [10] \*kʼirɿUɿqa ‘ice, hoarfrost; to freeze’
- [11] \*Sahɿiɿbɔ ‘saline earth, desert’
- [12] \*täɿwA or \*talwä ‘cold season, rain’
- [13] \*yamɔ ‘water body’
- [14] \*moRE ‘water body’
- [15] \*qaRɿpʰɔ ‘to harvest’ (→ ‘cereals’)
- [16] \*zükɔ or \*zuke ‘edible cereals, harvest (of wild plants?)’
- [17] \*gaLɔ ‘cereals’
- [18] \*χäntʰɔ ‘kernel, grain’
- [19] \*mäɿge ‘breast, female breast’
- [20] \*ħaɿbɔ (or \*χaɿbɔ) ‘white’
- [21] \*mayʒɔ ‘tasty beverage’
- [22] \*kʼadɔ ‘to wicker, wattle’ (> ‘wall, fence’)
- [23] \*kʼoʔɿcɔ ‘basket’
- [24] \*pʼɿpatʰaʼ ‘basket, box’
- [25] \*ɿʔaʳKʰuʼ ‘sinew’
- [26] \*yaŋɿyɿɔ ‘sinew, tendon’
- [27] \*ɿŋKʰa ‘to bend’
- [28] \*ńoʔɿɿE (or \*ńaʔɿɿE) ‘sinew’, ‘to tie together’
- [29] \*pɿpʰešqE ~ \*pɿpʰeqšE ‘spear’
- [30] \*tʰuɿɿiʳgʼɔ ‘to spread like a veil/net, cover with a veil/net, catch with a net’
- [31] \*goki ‘track’ (→ ‘way’), ‘to follow the track’
- [32] \*ʳdʰEɿSɔ or \*ʳdʰEʔɿχSɔ ‘to follow the tracks’
- [33] \*šubyɔ ‘spike, spear, to pierce’
- [34] \*tʰapʰɔ ‘to hit (the target)’

- [35] \*ment<sup>1</sup>∇ ‘to miss one’s aim’ (→ ‘to pass by’)
- [36] \*gurHa ‘antelope, male antelope’
- [37] \*ʔE<sup>1</sup>l<sup>1</sup>i ‘deer’
- [38] \*boč<sup>1</sup>a ‘(young) deer’
- [39] \*buk<sup>1</sup>a ‘bovines’
- [40] \*č<sup>1</sup>oma ‘aurochs, wild bovine’
- [41] ? \*č<sup>1</sup>a<sup>1</sup>w<sub>L</sub>∇<sub>J</sub>R∇ (or \*č<sup>1</sup>uR∇) ‘bull, calf’
- [42] \*ʔ<sup>1</sup>gaw<sup>1</sup>V ‘wild sheep\goats’, (→ or ←) ‘wild game’
- [43] \*di<sup>1</sup>ga ‘goat’
- [44] \*k<sup>1</sup>ā<sup>1</sup>c<sup>1</sup>∇ ‘wild goat’ (or ‘a kind of antelope’)
- [45] \*bukE<sup>1</sup>ʔ<sup>1</sup>∇ ‘billy goat, ram’
- [46] \*ʔ<sup>1</sup>∇p<sup>1</sup>∇r∇ ‘wild boar’
- [47] \*ʔ<sup>1</sup>i<sup>1</sup>r<sup>1</sup>i<sup>1</sup> ‘(male, young) artiodactyl’
- [48] \*p<sup>1</sup>oK<sup>1</sup>ū ‘pack, wild cattle’
- [49] \*gadi (or \*gati<sup>1</sup>?) ‘kid, young goat’, ? ‘(a species of) antelope’
- [50] \*bUy<sup>1</sup>z<sup>1</sup>∇ ‘fur-bearing animal’
- [51] \*ʔ<sup>1</sup>hUr∇(-ba) ‘squirrel or a similar animal’
- [52] \*k<sup>1</sup>un<sup>1</sup>h<sup>1</sup>∇(f<sup>1</sup>∇) ‘small carnivore (marten, polecat, wild cat, or sim.)’
- [53] \*dik<sup>1</sup>∇ ‘edible cereals or fruit’
- [54] \*ʔ<sup>1</sup>ʔ<sup>1</sup>ugb<sup>1</sup>∇ ‘fig tree (species?)’
- [55] ?? \*b<sup>1</sup>i<sup>1</sup>f<sup>1</sup>u<sup>1</sup>w<sup>1</sup>ga ‘(a kind of) edible fruit’
- [56] \*K<sup>1</sup>uS<sup>1</sup>∇ ‘nut’
- [57] \*L<sup>1</sup>∇ʔ<sup>1</sup>∇ (or \*L<sup>1</sup>∇w<sup>1</sup>ʔ<sup>1</sup>∇) ‘(a kind of) nut’, ‘nut-tree\shrub’
- [58] \*but<sup>1</sup>∇ ‘pistachio tree\nut’
- [59] \*mar<sub>L</sub><sup>1</sup>y<sub>J</sub>∇ ‘(mul-, black-) berries’
- [60] \*m<sup>1</sup>o<sup>1</sup><sub>L</sub><sup>1</sup>y<sub>J</sub>z<sup>1</sup>∇ ‘(a kind of) berry’
- [61] ? \*K<sup>1</sup>ER∇ ‘fruit of a leguminous plant’ or sim.
- [62] \*m<sup>1</sup>u<sup>1</sup>r<sup>1</sup>k<sup>1</sup>∇(-ŋK<sup>1</sup>∇) ‘root, root-crops, edible roots’
- [63] \*mo<sup>1</sup>l<sup>1</sup>∇ ‘to pound, crumble, gnaw/smash to pieces’
- [64] \*ʔ<sup>1</sup>āPHi ‘to bake, prepare food on hot stones’
- [65] \*qU<sup>1</sup>b<sup>1</sup>z<sup>1</sup>∇ (< \*qU<sup>1</sup>p<sup>1</sup>z<sup>1</sup>∇?) ‘food made of ground cereals’, ‘flour’ (> ‘bread’)
- [66] \*ʔ<sup>1</sup>om<sup>1</sup>śa ‘meat’
- [67] \*g<sup>1</sup>u<sup>1</sup>z<sup>1</sup>∇ ‘intestines, pluck (as food)’
- [68] \*ʔay<sup>1</sup>ŋo ‘marrow, brain, soft fat of animals’
- [69] \*mag<sub>L</sub><sup>1</sup>i<sub>J</sub>za ‘liver’
- [70] \*n<sup>1</sup>a<sup>1</sup>K<sup>1</sup>U ‘soft parts of the animal’s body (liver, marrow, suet)’
- [71] \*mu<sup>1</sup>ṇa(-t<sup>1</sup>d<sup>1</sup>∇) ‘egg’



- [72] ? \*ʔa|oʷh|χi or \*ʔuʰ|χi ‘egg’ (or ‘white of egg’)
- [73] \*Kʰo|ɳ ‘(large) fish’
- [74] \*doTgiHU ‘fish’
- [75] \*mEn|ñi ‘(a kind of) fish’
- [76] \*p|pʰayɳ ‘(a kind of) fish’
- [77] \*tʰüRɳ ‘hard-roe’
- [78] \*kʰürɫwɳ or \*kʰurɫwɳE ‘hard roe, spawn’
- [79] \*madu ‘honey’
- [80] \*čʰüʳrɳ ‘flint-stone, knife’
- [81] ? \*buRɳ ‘flint’ (> ‘to cut\carve with a flint’)
- [82] \*ti|eɫʔaɳio (or \*tūɫʔaɳiɳ) ‘stone, heap of stones’
- [83] \*kiwɫɳhE ‘stone’
- [84] \*boruɟ|ɣɳ ‘trunk’ (→ ‘log’)
- [85] ? \*cʰUɳ ‘stalk, stick’
- [86] \*kʰoʒɳ ‘tree trunk’
- [87] \*kañɳ(-bɳ) ‘stalk, trunk’ (→ ‘log’)
- [88] \*ʒuRɳ ‘pole, long piece of wood’
- [89] \*ʒirɣu|ü ‘vein, sinew’
- [90] \*ʔeʒekU ‘thorn, hook’ (< ‘tooth’)
- [91] \*kʰaʳkɫwɳ ‘tooth, claw’, ‘hook’
- [92] \*toʳɳ ‘bark; to bark (remove the bark), to peel’
- [93] \*Kʰaʳpʳ|ɣʳEʳ ‘bark’
- [94] \*Kʰayerɳ ‘bark, film’
- [95] \*tʰoɫwɳga or \*tʰogaɫ-wɳ ‘hide, skin’
- [96] \*tʰaɳUɳya ‘skin, pelt’
- [97] \*Kʰaʳüʳ ‘skin, film, bark’
- [98] \*kʰoRupʳɳ ‘(kind of) bark’, ‘skin’
- [99] \*Kʰoʒɳ ‘to skin, to bark’
- [100] \*KʰɳRɳHpʳ|pɳ ‘piece of leather (used esp. as footwear)’
- [101] \*pʰix|ɣyA ‘sharp bone, sharp tool’
- [102] \*pišɳ ‘bile’
- [103] \*tʰäxɳ|la ~ \*tʰäɳ|ɳx a or \*tʰäxɳ|ɳE ~ \*tʰäɳ|ɳxE ‘spleen’
- [104] \*ɳä|eʳpʳA ‘spleen’
- [105] \*tʰEqmE ‘sinciput, crown of the head, top, tip’
- [106] \*gʰedi ‘occiput; hind part’
- [106] ? \*go|atKʰE ‘popliteal space (back of the knee), armpit’
- [108] \*ñiKʰa ‘jugular vertebra, neck, nape of the neck’

- [109] \*kālū|ū ‘a woman from the other exogamous moiety’
- [110] \*kūda ‘a man from the other moiety’
- [111] \*śe3A ‘a relative from the other moiety’
- [112] \*ḥ|χ ▽ wāñ|n ▽ ‘relative [of a younger\the same generation] from the other moiety’
- [113] \*n|ñu|ūs ▽ or \*n|ñu|ūs y ▽ ‘woman’ (general term), ‘woman from the other moiety’
- [114] \*Hić|cx ▽ or \*-c’|c’-, \*-ʏ|g|h- ‘father, head of a family’
- [115] \*ʔediN ▽ ‘pater familias’
- [116] \*ʔemA ‘mother’
- [117] \*ʔä’y ▽ (or \*h’ä’y ▽ ?) ‘mother’
- [118] ?? \*ʔaba ~ \*ʔap’a ‘daddy, father’
- [119] \*ʕog|l|V ‘child, one’s child, to beget, to bear a child’
- [120] \*ʔar ▽ ‘member of the clan’
- [121] \*ʔarba ‘to make magic, cast spells’
- [122] \*ʕ’a’l ▽ ‘to burn (esp. sacrifices), use magic means (sacrifices, magic formulae etc.) to produce a particular result’
- [123] ??\*ʕ|ʏa|l|l ▽ ‘device (esp. a dishonourable one) of doing something’
- [124] \*śot’ ▽ ‘to exercise magic force’ (> ‘to curse, bless’)
- [125] ≈≈ \*tu’l ▽ ‘to tell (a story), pronounce magic\ritual texts’



# The Nostratic Macrofamily and Linguistic Palaeontology

Nostratic is a hypothetical macrofamily of languages which includes Indo-European, Hamito-Semitic (Semitic, Egyptian, Berber, Cushitic, Omotic, Chadic), Kartvelian (Georgian and related languages), Uralic ((Finno-Ugric, Samoyedic, Yukagir), Altaic (Turkic, Mongolic, Tungusic, Korean, Japanese), and Dravidian (in India). The hypothesis is based on more than 2000 common roots and affixes, in which regular sound correspondences are observed. In the present book the ancient Nostratic roots are used in order to achieve information about the speakers of Proto-Nostratic, their habitat, their culture and economy, their kinship system, and their environment. An attempt is made to determine whether their culture belonged to the Neolithic period or to an earlier epoch.

Aharon Dolgopolsky was born in Moscow in 1930. He was a member of the Institute of Linguistics (USSR Academy of Sciences). His field of research is comparative linguistics. In the early 1960s he (like V. Illich-Svitych, but independently) began to study lexical and grammatical similarities among Indo-European, Hamito-Semitic, Kartvelian, Uralic and Altaic and draw the conclusion that these language families derive from a common source. Illich-Svitych and Dolgopolsky were the first to undertake a multilateral comparison of daughter-languages of Nostratic. For 8 years Dolgopolsky taught Nostratic linguistics at Moscow University and trained a generation of comparativists (S. Starostin, E. Helimski, O. Stolbova, and others). In 1976 he moved to Israel and since then has worked at Haifa University.

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